THE SURVEY

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All issues of The Survey are indexed in the Readers' Guide to Periodical Literature, to be found in most public and college libraries.

The Gist of It

LUCILLE EAVES, director of the research department of the Women's Educational and Industrial Union, Boston, compares the optimistic study of the National Civic Federation on the Extent of Old Age Dependency with the similar facts but very different conclusions reached by the Massachusetts Old Age Commission in its report in 1926. Page 613.

NEW YORK'S new dwellings bill, should it be enacted into law, would take a realistic view of the fact that a tenement is not just a forlorn place where the other half lives, but a multiple dwelling, which is the characteristic home of New Yorkers. LAWSON PURDY, general secretary of the Charity Organization Society, writes of the bill as secretary of the commission which drafted it and against a long background of public service in housing, zoning, city planning and taxation. Page 615.

JOHN A. KINGSBURY, secretary of the Milbank Memorial Fund, participated in the old fashioned quadrille as well as the scientific meetings of the Race Betterment conference. Page 626.

MARY GOODYEAR EARLE is visiting psychologist at the Brooklyn State Hospital. Page 627.

HERMINIE NEUSTADTL is a New York newspaper woman. Page 631.

RAYMOND CLAPP, director of the Welfare Federation of Cleveland, reports another of the facets of the study of the volume and cost of social work in 1924 conducted under the auspices of the Association of Community Chests and Councils. Page 632.

IS there an increasing demand for relief? RALPH G. HURLIN, director of the Department of Statistics of the Russell Sage Foundation, reports the conclusions to be drawn from the data submitted monthly through the past two years by a group of family agencies representing many cities of the United States. Page 634.

KATHARINE LENROOT is assistant to the chief of the federal Children's Bureau. Page 635.

ROBERT G. BUZZARD is professor of geography at the Illinois State Normal University, Normal, Illinois. Page 637.

PROFESSOR M. N. CHATTERJEE of the Sociology Department of Antioch College (Yellow Springs, Ohio) looks at our occidental theories and practices in education against the background of his early experiences in India. Page 638.

JOSEPH K. HART, for several years education editor of The Survey, is now professor of education at the University of Wisconsin. Page 640.

EMILY BURR is director of the Vocational Adjustment Bureau for Girls and of the experimental workshop for nervous and mentally disturbed girls which she describes, page 642. She received her doctor's degree from Columbia and has also done graduate work at Cornell in neuro-pathology and psychiatry.

AS a member of the history department of the University of Colorado at Boulder, ERWIN F. MEYER visited the scene of "the Columbine massacre" to gather data for the permanent record of the university's historical collection. Page 644.

THE new interrelationships of Negro and white Americans in cities are sketched by T. J. WOOFTER, JR., director for the Institute of Social and Religious Research of the study summarized in this article and just published in book form. Page 647.

E. C. LINDEMAN, of the New York School for Social Work, is the author of Social Discovery, The Meaning of Adult Education, and the joint author, with Nels Anderson, of a volume on Urban Sociology to be published in April. Page 650.

HENRY SALOMON'S clear-cut advice to small investors is based on his practical experience as a banker—he is vice-president and trust officer of the Rhode Island Hospital Trust Company at Providence—and as a director of various corporations and social agencies, including the Rhode Island Hospital and the Providence Boys' Club. Page 657.

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OLD AGE

Contributed by Neysa McMein to the 100 Neediest Cases of The New York Times

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THE SURVEY
MIDMONTHLY

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Pensions or Poorhouses?

By LUCILE EAVES

OLD age resources of fifty thousand residents of a group of older industrial communities in North Atlantic states are now accurately described in two reports embodying the results of extensive, well-organized investigations directed by the same competent statistician. Striking similarities in factual distributions and summaries give convincing proofs of the validity and representative values of the findings. It would be hard to discover an instance where proposed social legislation was supplied with the guidance of such extensive, scientifically sound information; yet the two reports are presented with radically different interpretations of the significance of the same results, and with widely divergent recommendations about the social action which should be undertaken.

This review of the recently published Report by the Industrial Welfare Department of the National Civic Federation upon Economic and Physical Status of Persons 65 Years of Age and Over will place emphasis on conclusions fully verified by the 1925 Report on Old Age Pensions of the Massachusetts Commission on Pensions, rather than on the personal interpretations of findings by the chairmen of the Industrial Welfare Department and Committee on Old Age Annuities of the National Civic Federation. The statistical tables of the Civic Federation report present results of interviews by experienced social workers with 13,785 persons 65 years of age or over, living in 11 representative urban communities of New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and Connecticut. The Massachusetts report gives comparable data for 17,357 residents of 10 cities and 23 towns. Both reports contain valuable supplementary studies of the aged in receipt of charitable relief and of other varied aspects of old age dependency.

Three in every five of the aged persons interviewed owned, singly or jointly with their spouses, property accumulations valued at less than five thousand dollars: this was true of 59.2 per cent in Massachusetts and of 57.4 per cent in the 11 cities of the National Civic Federation study. Three persons in ten had no property at all when they faced old age—30.8 per cent in Massachusetts and 29.6 in the 11 cities. The percentage distributions of property owners between these two groups are small in both reports. Recent studies of incomes in the United States corroborate the results of these surveys in that they show only 20 to 25 per cent with incomes permitting substantial savings. Irving Fisher estimates that only 20 per cent of the population enjoy per capita annual incomes of more than five hundred dollars. Sickness, family needs or periods of unemployment, quickly exhaust the small savings which can be made by the 80 per cent in the lower income groups.

THE insistent optimism of the interpretations of findings in the National Civic Federation report found support in the facts that percentages of complete destitution were smaller than those alleged in certain sensational discussions which appeared prior to the issuance of the Massachusetts report, and also in returns from the National Civic Federation survey which seemed to indicate that one person in four could accumulate property amounting to ten thousand dollars or more. Thus it is announced cheerfully that "men in this country stand a better chance of being worth $10,000 or more, between 65 and 75, than of being destitute." However, the methods of classification have given a somewhat deceptive appearance of old-age prosperity, as 67.5 per cent of the men and 44.7 per cent of the women interviewed were married, and the community property reported for them was required for the support of two persons. Sounder estimates of resources available for old age support can be based on the property distribution of the single and widowed. Only 18 per cent of the single men and women were the fortunate owners of property valued at ten thousand dollars or more, and this was true

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of 21 per cent of the widowed men and 15.5 per cent of the widowed women.

Personal possessions, stocks, bonds and real estate were included in the property reported, so that not all yielded income. The increase with each age group of the proportion who were without property tells a sad story of the sacrifice of cherished possessions to obtain necessary support. The majority report of the Massachusetts Commission recommended that pensions be granted to persons with insufficient incomes when their property amounted to less than $3,000. Nearly two in every three of the lone women (62.7 per cent of the single and 65.3 of the widows) reported in the recent study, were in the property groups below this limit.

The field workers testified to the ardent desire of the elderly men to find gainful employment, but the extreme difficulties with which they met are evident from the rapid decline in earned incomes. Thus the proportion in the National Civic Federation report who had annual incomes of less than $400 increased from 26.9 per cent in the age group 65-69 to 88.7 per cent in the age group 85-89. The proportions in the entire groups with less than this minimum-subsistence income were 36.8 per cent for Massachusetts and 43.8 per cent for the men of the 11 cities covered in the later study. The numbers and percentages of the men who were able to find employment supply a parallel series to these changes in income, as they vary from 77 per cent of those 65 years old to 13.8 per cent of those 85 years old or over.

Urban residents are more subject to the persuasions of insurance agents than those in rural communities, but the old persons of the 11 cities covered in the National Civic Federation survey made but slight use of this means of protection for themselves and their dependents. Forty-five per cent of the men and 53 per cent of the women had no insurance. The policies carried usually were sufficient only for burial or the expenses of the last illness. Thus 23.4 per cent of the men and 33 per cent of the women had insurance of less than $500, and only 21.9 per cent of the men and 6.5 per cent of the women carried policies yielding $1,000 or more.

AGED persons whose property and incomes were insufficient for support depended for aid chiefly on their children. Relatives other than children gave assistance to only 2 per cent of the men and 6.6 per cent of the women. Unfortunately about one in five of both men and women had no children. The Massachusetts report shows clearly the lack of family resources among the almshouse inmates, as there were only 62 living children for every 100 persons forced to seek this refuge, compared with 260 for every 100 aged persons who were able to get along outside of an institution. Larger numbers of living children were reported for persons interviewed by the investigators of the National Civic Federation, but they seemed to be more willing to give care to their mothers than to their fathers. However, a total of 70.7 per cent of the men and 49.5 per cent of the women claimed that they were able to get along without aid, and less than two per cent admitted the receipt of public or private charitable relief.

The Massachusetts Commission reported that the facts presented "show a state of need among the aged population of Massachusetts far beyond what has been anticipated, or is realized by the general public." An old age pension or substantial increases in outdoor relief, under the careful supervision of the State Department of Public Welfare, were recommended as suitable means by which the community should "protect its aged citizens from the extreme hardships which so largely now overwhelm them in old age." With practically identical bodies of information before them the interpreters of the National Civic Federation report reach such conclusions as: "The good financial status of the majority as revealed in the findings only emphasizes the possibility of the further extension of the mantle of economic security by a more general adoption of measures available to all!" It is claimed that the needs of the aged may be met by industrial pensions, group insurance and thrift education.

WHILE insisting that no general public assistance is required, to supply economic wants, the report of the National Civic Federation emphasizes strongly the need of homes for paying guests of moderate means suffering from disabilities which require medical and nursing care. The admirable report of the committee from the Woman's Department of the National Civic Federation, giving results of their inspection of 75 almshouses in the states covered by the survey, presents a distressing picture of the condition of chronic patients forced to report to almshouse care:

> If popular interest and popular sympathy were diverted from fancied to actual conditions in almshouses they could work a revolution where reform is most urgently needed—in the care of the chronic sick who form a large part of our almshouse population. It is in that group that the "deserving" and "respectable" poor are most apt to be found, and it is an ever-increasing element, rated as large as 30 and 40 per cent by some authorities.
>
> The experience of the individual institution and the studies made by those trying to work out a solution of the problem, all arrive at the same conclusion—that almshouses are tending more and more to become the only recourse of those afflicted with every kind of chronic disease, because general hospitals more and more are closing their doors to chronic cases, and to conditions which threaten to become chronic.

Over two out of every five of the aged men who had retired reported sickness as the cause of their inability to continue in gainful employment. Chronic illness (18.2 per cent), rheumatism (12 per cent) and paralytic shocks (6.5 per cent), were the chief forms of physical disability. Twenty-eight per cent of the entire group suffered merely from general losses of strength due to senility. The proportions of the retired men who reported old age as the cause of disability ranged from 14 per cent of those 60-64 years old to 49 per cent of those 80 or over. Women reported somewhat greater physical disability than men. Men and women found in the community had much less mental impairment than those receiving care in institutions. A significant feature of the retirement tables is the large number who could not have continued their customary employment until the ages usually set for the beginning of pensions.

Among the interesting minor studies of the National Civic Federation report are those showing old age experiences of "white collar" workers; the difference between foreign and native born in amounts of education, ages of beginning work, and extent of provision for old age; the old age occupations found by men and women forced to seek new types of employment; the periods of service with industrial and commercial firms in which the men interviewed were employed; and ages of partial and total im-

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pairment of earning power in different types of employment. Touching stories telling of experiences of the aged, gathered during personal interviews by the tactful supervisors of field work, add to the human interest aspects of the report.

A critical discussion of the results of these two surveys and of the validity of proposed remedies would fill a large volume. The means of relieving old age dependency proposed in this most recent report of the National Civic Federation are all admirable, but no one familiar with the history of social insurance in European countries can feel optimistic about the possibility of their general, voluntary adoption in the United States. After progressive employers have installed the sound insurance schemes recommended in previous reports of the Civic Federation, it may be possible to compel their general adoption. Many classes of old age dependents, particularly among women, will not be covered by these industrial pensions and group insurance plans. There seems no way of escape from the conclusion that our present crude methods of distributing wealth fail to safeguard the old age happiness of a proportionately small, but numerically large, group of worthy men and women whose risks and perplexities are increased with each year which the doctors succeed in adding to the expectation of life. The United States must soon follow the example of the civilized nations which have recognized a universal need of means for promoting greater old age security. These two admirable reports will assist us in the difficult tasks of creating social agencies and drafting legislation adapted to the peculiar needs of this country.

New York's New Dwellings Bill

By LAWSON PURDY

THE first Tenement House Law was enacted in 1867 and that act defined a tenement house in substantially the same terms as are employed in the law of 1901, as any house, building, or portion thereof which is rented, leased, let, or hired out to be occupied or is occupied as the home or residence of more than three families living independently of one another and doing their own cooking upon the premises. The law of 1867 left very much to be desired but doubtless marked a considerable advance over the conditions prevailing at that time. It did not prohibit what we commonly know as a dark room, that is, a room without a window to the street or to an adequate court or yard. Between 1867 and 1901 there were several commissions and consequent legislation which in general improved conditions.

In 1900 the legislature provided for the appointment of a commission by Governor Roosevelt as the result of a tenement-house exhibit and report made by a committee of the New York Charity Organization Society of which Lawrence Veiller was secretary. This commission was organized with Robert W. de Forest as chairman and Lawrence Veiller as secretary, and the law of 1901 was passed on its recommendation.

From time to time many persons have urged that the Tenement House Law was enacted for the benefit of poor persons living in poor houses. The law of 1867 made no such distinction and when the commission of 1900 was urged to make such a distinction its members refused, declaring in their report:

> There is no reason to draw a distinction which since the first enactment of a Tenement House Law in New York has been found unnecessary and impracticable, and which, if drawn, would make one set of laws for the rich and another for the poor, a class distinction obnoxious to the democratic policy of our state.

All houses lawfully built and lawfully occupied for three or more families living independently of each other and doing their own cooking on the premises are tenement houses; there are tenement houses in New York in which apartments rent for thirty thousand dollars a year and other tenement houses in which apartments rent for two hundred dollars a year or less. There was no reason in 1900 for making any distinc-

The New York Legislature of 1927 adopted a resolution providing for the appointment of a Commission to Examine and Revise the Tenement House Law. This commission is composed of four senators, four assemblymen, and three members appointed by the governor. The commission met in the spring and organized by the election of Senator Whitley as chairman, Assemblyman Hofstadter as vice-chairman, Lawson Purdy as secretary, and Harold Riegelman as counsel. A series of hearings was held in City Hall, New York, in June at which seventy-nine witnesses appeared. In July tours of inspection were made. In August hearings were held in Buffalo. In September counsel presented a preliminary report to the commission. Frequent meetings were held between that time and the first of January at which the provisions of a new dwellings law were considered. The commission had the benefit of the advice and constant assistance of Leonard Cox with Arthur C. Holden and Associates as consulting architects. The bill incorporating its findings, introduced on January 30, is summarized by the secretary of the commission, who tells the measures proposed to safeguard the health and safety of present and future residents of the state, most striking among them the expansion of the "set-back" principle to include the sides and rear as well as the street front of large buildings, so that the skyline of streets of new apartment buildings may assume the silhouette of towers instead of the present unbroken front of a cliff.

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tion between houses for the rich and for the poor, and there is no reason today for making any such distinction.

The law of 1901 made a great advance over previous legislation. It provided that there should be no room without adequate windows opening upon the street or upon a court or yard of dimensions greater than required by the preceding law. In houses of five stories and over the stairs and stair-halls and doors must be fire-proof and in three and four-story houses such stairs and stair-halls must be fire-retarded. As a result of this legislation not a single life has been lost by the burning of a tenement house erected since 1901, although many lives are lost yearly from the burning of tenement houses erected prior to that date.

In every apartment there must be a water-closet which may be entered without passing through a bedroom and such water-closet must open to the outer air by a window upon the street or upon a court or yard of minimum prescribed size. A better type of fire-escapes is required and every apartment must have two independent means of egress.

Prior to 1901 the Tenement House Law was administered by the five building superintendents of the five boroughs and certain discretion was given to relax the provisions of the law. The law of 1901 centered administration in a single Tenement House Department and left no discretion to the department to relax the provisions of the law.

During these twenty-six years since 1901 the Tenement House Law has been amended more than one hundred times. Such amendments have made the law rather complicated and complaints were made that it was difficult of comprehension. Certain changes in the habits and customs of people have rendered some of the provisions obsolete. These were some of the reasons which led to the adoption of a resolution by the last legislature for the appointment of a commission to examine and revise the law.

Twenty-five years ago the ordinary family having an income of three thousand dollars a year kept one or more servants. The more expensive tenement houses almost always had apartments of not less than eight rooms. The ordinary stove for cooking was a coal stove. In the more expensive apartments it was a range built into the wall. In the less expensive apartments it was generally an independent, free-standing stove which served for heating as well as for cooking. Today the average number of rooms per apartment, even in expensive buildings, is much less than in former times and there is a demand for apartments of three rooms, two, and even one room. Cooking is almost universally done by gas or electric range and even upon small electric plates. Servants' wages are five times greater than they were twenty-five years ago. These two changes have come about simultaneously and perhaps partly as cause and effect. Families are living today in small apartments and doing most of their own cooking, who twenty-five years ago would not have dreamed of living without one or more servants.

With the War came a cessation of building of all kinds, including dwellings, with a resulting housing shortage so serious that in February, 1921, there were only 1,510 vacant apartments out of 982,000. This housing shortage gave a value to old houses built for occupancy by a single family which before the War had practically no selling value. It was easy, under the Building Code, to alter these houses into apartments, two on each floor, for non-housekeeping use. Thousands of them were altered, some of them in good faith for non-housekeeping use and some of them with intent that tenants should cook if they desired. Indeed, facilities were afforded for installing gas ranges in many of them.

THE Tenement House Law based the number of stairs and width of stairs upon the number of apartments per floor. For a good many years this was a satisfactory rule but it ceased to be satisfactory when the demand was for apartments of three rooms or less. It was very costly, therefore, to erect a lawful tenement house of large size with a large number of apartments per floor because of the number of stairs required. The Tenement House Law restricted the height of tenement houses to one and one-half times the width of the street; it required that halls be lighted by windows to the outer air and that in every apartment there should be a water-closet with a window opening to the outer air. Under the Building Code a hotel can be erected lawfully with a smaller number of stairs than a tenement house, with halls not lighted by a window, and with water-closets not lighted and ventilated by a window. Moreover, a hotel could be erected to the full height permitted by the Zoning Ordinance; in Manhattan, where such hotels were commonly built, this means to a height of twice the width of the street or one and one-half times the width of the street, with a much greater height with set-backs. For these reasons there were obvious economies in building hotels instead of tenement houses for a certain class of tenants who are able and willing to pay very high rents.

Wortman in The New York World

"I'll have to sell some of my furniture because I'm moving to a more expensive apartment where there isn't so much room"

The authors of the existing law did all that was politically practicable at the time in giving to tenement houses better light and ventilation. They were limited in what they could do by the fact that the law applied to the entire city and it was impossible to make very much better regulations than obtained already in the congested parts of the city.

These are some of the problems that the present commission attempted to solve. First, they sought a solution for

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the compulsion exercised by existing buildings and high land values. They said, "Why should we condemn the owners and residents of the unbuilt portions of Brooklyn, Bronx, Queens, and Richmond to submit to the conditions now existing in the congested Borough of Manhattan?" So, out of the experience of the Zoning Ordinance they said, "Why not divide the city in somewhat the fashion followed by the Zoning Commission?" While it is not so stated, the Zoning Map regulating height and area follows very closely the value of land. It was obviously unnecessary to permit a greater height than once the width of the street where land values are low; on the other hand, it was necessary where land values are high and existing buildings are high to permit new buildings to rise to a greater height than would be necessary or desirable where land values are low.

With this theory, the commission caused to be prepared a map using the land value map of the Tax Department, which showed all the land in the city having a value of two dollars per square foot or less. From this map it appeared that almost all the land in Manhattan has an assessed value for the year 1927 of more than two dollars per square foot and that the major part of the land in the other boroughs has a value of two dollars per square foot or less. The commission therefore prescribed that all land assessed in 1927 at two dollars per square foot or less shall be known as Class One land, and all land with a greater value shall be known as Class Two land. On the first class land they have provided for first class buildings so far as it was deemed practicable. Height is somewhat lower, the courts are somewhat wider, and the height permitted for a non-fireproof building is less.

The commission was aided in coming to its conclusions as to what is a reasonable height and what are reasonable courts and yards by the character of many tenement houses erected in recent years which cover a much smaller percentage of the lot than was formerly customary. By better planning the architects have been able to secure almost as many rooms and have so planned the building that all apartments have two fronts and the windows that open on the courtyard have greater advantages than the windows opening upon the street. This means higher rents, more suitable tenants, and over a term of years a more profitable investment to the owner.

The series of problems presented by building under two Laws—the Tenement House Law and the Building Code—have been met by the Commission by including all dwelling houses under a Dwellings Law. The old basic distinction between a tenement house and another dwelling house, based on independent cooking, has been abandoned. First, it seems on the basis of much testimony that it is exceedingly difficult to administer a law which makes a difference between a house constructed for a number of families who do not cook as compared with a house with the same number of families and the same number of rooms where the tenants do cook; and it was thought, therefore, that if there are safeguards about facilities for cooking the dangers of today are less than they were when the ordinary coal stove was commonly used for cooking.

IT is proposed that substantially all houses for multi-family occupancy other than lodging houses be built upon substantially the same rules. The number of stairs is based on the number of rooms instead of on the number of apartments. In fire-proof buildings independent means of egress are more like the present requirement of the Building Code for hotels than the former requirement for tenement houses. Larger yards are required and larger open spaces, and on Class Two land the objection to this reduction of area covered is met by permitting a greater height. The building may rise at the building line to a height equal to the width of the street, plus five feet. At that point it must set back ten feet in the front, on the sides, and in the rear. Then it may rise 45 feet in a straight line and thereafter may rise, if set back on all sides, one foot for each 5 feet. The total height of the building may not be more than 180 feet nor than twice the width of the street, plus 5 feet. If the area of the land built on is 25,000 square feet or more there may be a tower not exceeding 20 per cent of the area of the lot, unlimited as to height but the base of the tower must be set back on all sides to the extent required at the maximum height permitted for the building exclusive of the tower. These same principles as to height are applied on Class One land but the maximum heights are less and set-backs greater.

THE problem of converting old houses has always been with us, but was much intensified in the housing shortage. It seems probable it will have less importance now that the housing shortage is over. In general if a single-family house is converted into multi-family occupancy, the stairs and stair halls must be fire-retarded, every apartment must have two means of egress, and every apartment must have a water-closet opening to the outer air, except on the top floor where it may be ventilated and lighted by a skylight and on next to the top floor where it may be similarly lighted and ventilated by an unpierced shaft. All houses heretofore altered must within two years conform to the rules made for subsequent alterations.

Those familiar with the conditions in the worst old tenement houses will be anxious to know what is required to be done to them. It must not be forgotten that the commission of 1901 made all the improvements in old houses they deemed practicable and left not much to be done by a commission in 1928.

There are still water-closets in the yards of some of the old houses. These must be abandoned in two years. They must be replaced by at least one water-closet for each two families in such location inside the house, as the department may approve, with a window to the outer air. Stair halls in old houses must be fire-retarded. Most of the fatalities have occurred by the burning of the stairs from fires starting in the cellar or on the first floor. Old houses which have less than one water-closet for three families on a floor are required to increase the number so that there shall be at least one for each two families and they shall be so arranged that they may be for the exclusive use of two families each.

It is always a question how much money can be spent on old houses by present owners, how much it is fair to require, and how much from an economic point of view it is wise to require if practicable. The more money that is spent on old houses the more their unhappy lives may be prolonged.

The question will be asked, "Does the proposed law reduce the cost of housing?" Probably it neither reduces nor increases it, but it does tend to cause the erection of buildings which will have a longer useful life and that in time reduces cost. As population moves up from old buildings to new, the poorest buildings are vacated and in time we should have none that are not safe, sanitary and well lighted.

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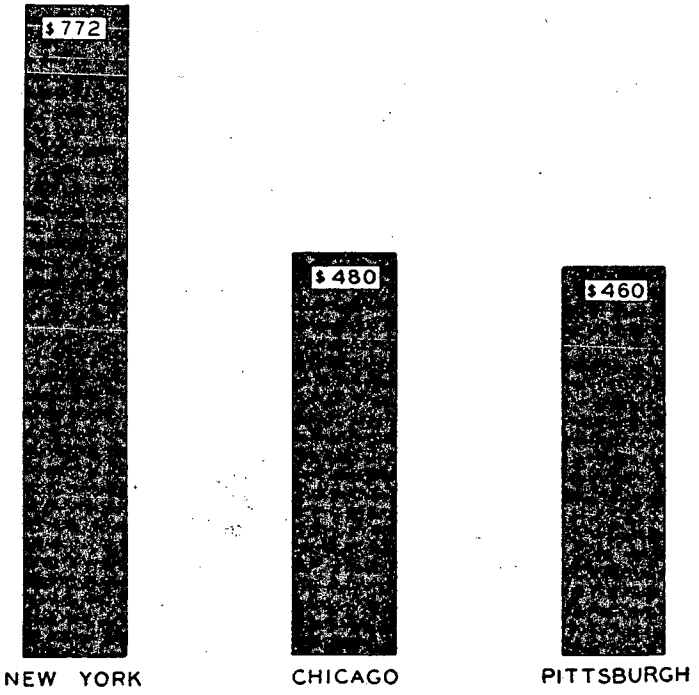
The Cost of Funerals

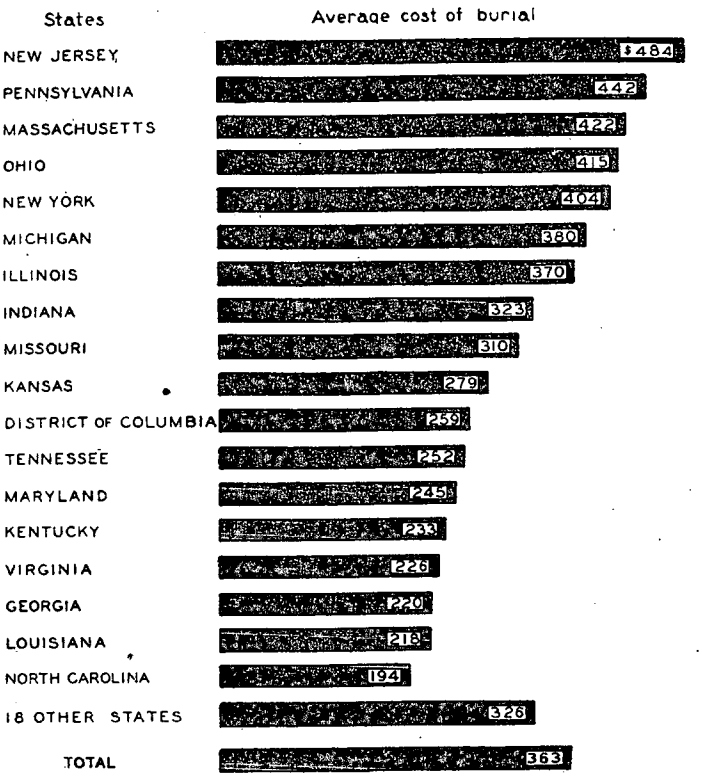
BETWEEN 1900 and 1920 the number of deaths in the United States hardly increased; the declining death-rate practically offset the great growth in population. Yet in 1900 there were 16,200 undertakers, and in 1920, 24,464: their number increased twenty-five times as rapidly as the volume of business. To this situation, which forced the burial industry to "merchandise upward" in order to expand, the Advisory Committee on Burial Survey lays the chief responsibility for the increasing cost of funerals.

The Advisory Committee on Burial Survey was formed in May, 1926, in response to the concern of charitable and social agencies, industrial insurance companies and public-spirited citizens generally, with the excessive expenditures for funerals, especially in low-income groups. Its membership of forty included clergymen of different faiths, physicians, lawyers, social workers, journalists, and representatives of the funeral industry itself, under the chairmanship of Lawson Purdy, general director of the New York Charity Organization Society. Its survey, which has taken the better part of two years, was directed by John C. Gebhart, formerly a member of the staff of the New York A.I.C.P., and financed by a special grant of twenty-five thousand dollars from the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company from which copies of the summary report may be obtained.

"When an industry is confronted with a fixed or diminishing volume of business," writes Mr. Gebhart in the summary just issued by the committee, "it must choose between two alternatives: either more higher-priced goods must be sold to the same number of customers, or the volume of business must be concentrated in fewer hands through the elimination of uneconomic units. From our study of the industry it is apparent that both manufacturers of burial goods and undertakers have chosen the first alternative by 'merchandising upward' regardless of costs. Not only have more expensive burial goods and more elaborate types of funerals been sold to the public, but the number engaged in the business has increased out of all proportion to the demand. The public has therefore not only been persuaded to purchase each year more expensive merchandise and more elaborate funerals, but forced to absorb the overhead and profits of a multiplicity of manufacturing plants and funeral establishments."



Average burial expense of estates in New York, Chicago and Pittsburgh



Average cost of burial for 7,871 adult industrial policy holders, by states

In 1880 there were about 194 deaths per undertaker; in 1920, about 56. Moreover, throughout the cities it was found that a large part of the business is concentrated in the hands of a few large establishments, while the rest scramble along on very little, so that in New York, for example, about 90 per cent of the undertakers are trying to eke a living out of an average of two funerals a month.

In other businesses, notably automobiles, "merchandising upward" has worked to the ultimate benefit of the public. Mr. Ford, having saturated the market with Model T, finds it necessary to create a finer Model A at the same price, while keen competition and effective management throughout the industry have actually lowered the prices of high-grade motor cars during a decade when everything else has been going up. The peculiar conditions of the burial industry, however, have kept such factors from becoming operative. In purchasing a funeral, a family is caught without warning, with no time or inclination to shop around and strike a sharp bargain. The best that they can buy seems slight enough as a tribute of love and respect to their

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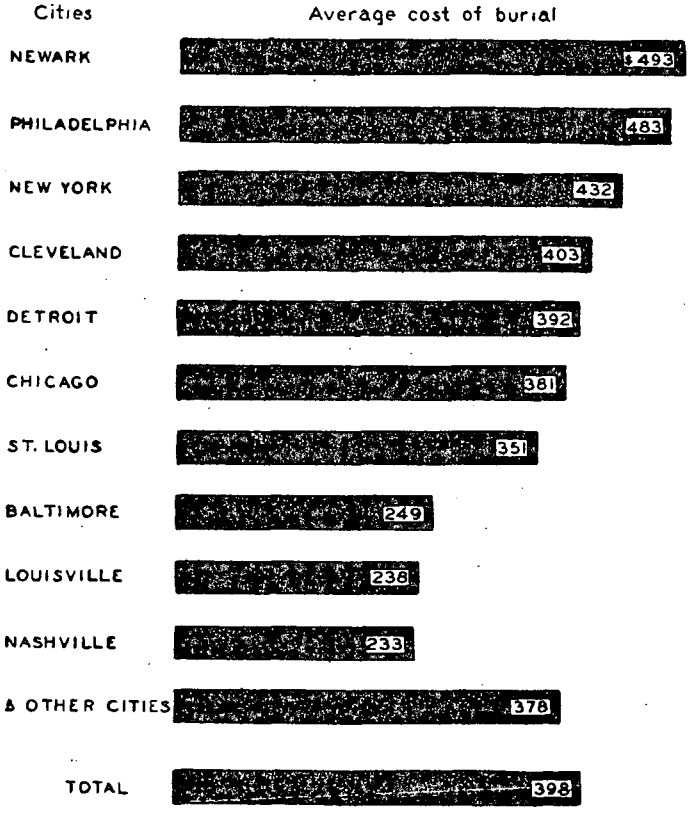
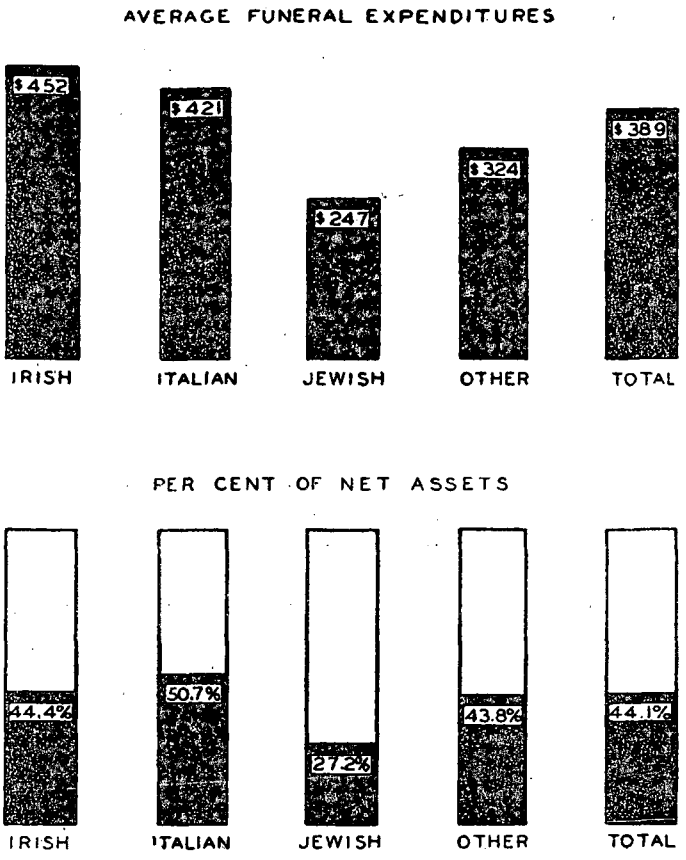
dead. They are, or feel, peculiarly bound by the social conventions of friends and neighbors. Moreover, partly because of the general prosperity of the country, but more particularly because of the wide spread of industrial life insurance among all but the most destitute, almost all have fairly ample funds for the funeral, though a few weeks later they may be obliged to apply to a social agency for the means of subsistence.

Of estates of less than $1,000, for example, burial expenses exhaust 52 per cent in New York, and 62 per cent in Brooklyn, while less than 1 per cent is absorbed of estates of more than $100,000. Funeral expenses could not be expected to show a direct proportion to the size of the estate, but here the difference in ratio is absurd. The costs of burial, ascertained by a record of nearly 8,000 industrial policyholders, were found to vary widely from state to state, highest in the East, lowest in the South, with the Midwest and Central States falling between these extremes. The data from the Pacific states was too scanty to justify general conclusions. There was also a wide variation between cities, with the costs in direct proportion to the size of the city, revealed strikingly in an analysis of claims presented to the Veterans' Bureau. A study of the records of 319 widows receiving pensions by the New York Board of Child Welfare showed a considerable difference in the amount spent in one city by Irish and Italian families, and by Jewish families, whose burial customs are simple. These were all cases of dependent families, in which there were young children to be supported for many years, yet the cost of the father's funeral absorbed from 27 to 50 per cent of all the family's assets, cash, life insurance and other property.

As a background for evaluating American experience, the committee studied a number of European attempts to regulate funerals as a public utility. In Switzerland, France, Germany and Italy the municipality or state has either a



Average cost of burial for 2,765 adult industrial policy holders, by cities



Average funeral expenditures and per cent of net assets expended of 319 widows receiving pensions from the New York Board of Child Welfare

monopoly of the funeral business or controls it. It is possible for people to obtain decent funerals at prices compatible with their incomes—in Frankfort, from $8.57 to $57.12, for example, or in Munich, from $15.48 to $176. It was found, however, that in most cities comparatively few except the most destitute limited themselves to the services supplied by the municipality, and since the wealthy and middle classes can purchase extra service, it is difficult to determine how efficient public regulation has been in curtailing luxury and display. Even in European cities where there is no public regulation, commercial enterprise in funeral management does not reach the scale of this country.

A group of family welfare societies were asked to report on the experience of their organizations in this field. Replies from twenty-seven bore out the acuteness of the problem of funeral expenses in the cities of the North and East, declaring that it is difficult to say whether extravagance was due chiefly to an unreasonable desire for elaborate display on the part of the family or to extortion and over-selling on the part of undertakers. In the latter, it was the small neighborhood undertaker, trying to make a living out of a small volume of business, who was more likely to take advantage of poor and ignorant families than were the large establishments. When the family case worker is able to intervene, she usually can arrange a funeral at moderate cost, but too often the family does not apply to the agency until its money is exhausted.

These small neighborhood undertakers, the committee found, often own practically no equipment of their own but hire at need from the casket houses. The prices charged by the latter for the use of paraphernalia and personnel are so low that there is reason to believe that the casket manu-

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facturers are taking a loss which must be made up by the prices charged all types of undertakers for burial goods. It was also found that in some of the manufacturers' salesrooms, to which the small undertaker takes his client to chose equipment, there was a sliding scale of prices, depending on what the customer could bear, whereby the retail price of the casket was marked up to provide the director's overhead and yield him a profit on the funeral.

A movement for better business administration was initiated by the Casket Manufacturers' Association of America in 1923, and has been accelerated by the findings of the present study. During the course of the study the number of firms using a cost accounting system, permitting an analysis of the basis of fair and reasonable dealing, was increased from 18 to 90. In October, 1927, the funeral directors who had installed cost-accounting met in Chicago and organized the Funeral Service Bureau of America, which has adequate funds for administration, business and legal counsel and publicity; rigid qualifications for membership, with suspension or expulsion as penalties for deviation from the bureau's business and ethical standards; and provisions for full cooperation with governmental agencies, courts, insurance companies, civic, welfare and charitable agencies.

In its recommendations the committee stresses increased interest and effort by the undertaking industry itself and by clergymen, probate courts, insurance companies and social agencies which deal with bereaved families. "Excessive expenditures," they point out, "are due partly to unrestrained emotionalism and partly to a disorganized and wasteful industry. The problem involves both the education of the public and the reorganization of the industry so as to reduce waste, lower costs and provide fair and honest trading methods." In this latter a beginning already has been made in the organization of the Funeral Service Bureau. The committee recommends that the public also be organized through representatives of insurance companies, civic and welfare agencies and the like to cooperate with the industry, so that bereaved families may be assured of fair play at the time when they are least able to safeguard their own interests and so that establishments prepared to serve efficiently and economically be given adequate support.

The Finale of Near East Relief

By BRUNO LASKER

IN the early days, a decade ago, it was emergency relief pure and simple for which the American Committee for Armenian and Syrian Relief asked and received tens of millions of dollars. But it is interesting to note that as far back as 1918 the late Samuel T. Dutton, chairman of the executive committee, emphasized the provisional nature of the actual program and the hope for large plans of rehabilitation through education. The concentration camp forced educational problems to the attention almost from the start.

The second stage was reached when the care for orphaned and abandoned children, previously but one of the necessary items in an extensive program of material aid, became the center of an essentially reconstructive set of activities in which the problem of physical survival gradually diminished. The orphanage replaced the concentration camp.

Without discussing the temporary re-emergence of acute relief problems with the sack of Smyrna and the re-patriation of vast numbers of exiles, the third stage of the developing process may be described as dominated by an educational and supervisory program in which the needs of physical care have become merely accessory, though still very costly. Careful placement in homes under skilled supervision has for most of the children in the organization's charge replaced the orphanage. The name Near East Relief has become something of a misnomer.

This third phase of the process must be completed. The children already placed out—some 32,000 of them—must be looked after until they are not only self-supporting but also mature enough to require no longer an adult's guidance. They require such services as trained field workers can give in vocational guidance, placement and re-placement, additional training and health supervision. Those 7,000 remaining in the institutions must be given adequate schooling and must later be placed in homes, industries, and agriculture.

In entering upon an intensive campaign for support of this final stage of its activities, Near East Relief might boast that it is the only one of the American war relief agencies to have worked through the logical sequence of its program to a dignified conclusion. The significance of its present appeal for $6,000,000 to complete the job lies in this demonstration of a rounded project in international aid and cooperation. I doubt whether many intelligent Americans look back with a clear conscience upon the way in which most of the other war relief projects, started with enthusiasm, have been permitted to vanish for lack of continued interest. Think of the "adopted" cities of France, of the child welfare campaigns in eastern Europe, the abrupt close of the work for war prisoners! Too often the very effectiveness of the initial appeal to the heart made more difficult a later appeal to the head.

Here, then, in the new and final stage of Near East Relief we have our last chance to see through one of the tasks which the American people assumed as their part in the reconstruction of the war-bled Old World. If we heed this call, if we give these 40,000 boys and girls that care to which we have granted them a claim by rescuing them from an early death, we shall have given our answer to the perplexing questions as to the reasons for saving human life which we asked so often in the days after the war when the whole world seemed to rely on American dollars for bread. We shall be able to say: We have saved these children because we desired to add to the highest type of manhood and womanhood in our time. We have saved them because these children, without relatives, and without outworn group traditions to hold back their progress, were able to take advantage of all the best we could find both in the Old World and in the New of skills and methods in the nurture and education of children. They are our exhibit of the results that can be achieved through a system of international cooperation when all those who take part have but a single aim. In comparison with the hundred millions already poured in by American liberality, it is a relatively small amount for which Near East Relief now asks to complete a notable American experiment.

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The Common Welfare

A TOWN FOR MODERNS

A CITY in which the automobile and the pedestrian may live at peace is the exciting picture held out by the City Housing Corporation, builders of Sunnyside, in announcing Radburn, a new town to be built between Paterson and Hackensack, N. J., about seventeen miles from New York. The March issue of Survey Graphic will tell of the plans to turn a thousand acres of rolling farm and woodland into a self-sufficing community where 25,000 people may live and work in comfort, for Radburn aspires to be more than another "bedroom borough" to pour its wage-earners through the tubes into New York of a morning and out again at night. If the program carries through, Radburn will have its own industries, shops, schools and theaters, but it is not these that will make it unique among communities accessible to middle-class incomes, but the plan for main highways which will carry through traffic, and lead past short, quiet, dead-end streets on which people will live, grouped about central park spaces and connected by foot-paths with schools, playgrounds, and shopping centers. In this ambitious project, which eventually will involve the expenditure of some $60,000,000, the City Housing Corporation has the benefit of its experience at Sunnyside (see The Survey for Nov. 15, 1924) where within four years a community has been developed to house 1,000 families comfortably, attractively, with gardens and play-spaces, at an average cost of $11 a month a room. Probably half of the Sunnyside families, who thus live in suburban comfort within twenty minutes of the Grand Central station, represent annual incomes of $3,000 or less; they include a wide range of occupations: chauffeurs, stenographers, teachers, restaurant workers, physicians, butlers, lawyers, engineers, and so on. The novel, yet sound methods of financing which Alexander S. Bing and his associates have developed for Sunnyside as a limited dividend company, and the attractiveness and economy of their housing and planning in spite of the rigid restrictions of typical city blocks give ground for great expectations of the expansion of these principles to open country on a larger scale.

TAKING STOCK OF CHILD LABOR

THE National Child Labor Committee seems to have taken to heart the exhortations of the doctors to celebrate one's birthday with a health examination. Completing this month the twenty-first anniversary of its incorporation, the committee announces its plans for a detailed study of the present status of child labor which will be used as the basis of its future program. The study will be made by John A. Lapp, director of the department of social action of the National Catholic Welfare Conference and last year's president of the National Conference of Social Work. It will include a detailed survey of the present status of legislation on child labor and compulsory school attendance and the enforcement of these measures; a review of the campaign for the federal child labor amendment; a study of continuation schools and their successes and failures, and of present activities in the fields of vocational education, guidance and placement, as they relate to child labor; and a brief analysis of the results of child labor legislation upon child welfare, and of methods whereby children can be assured the opportunities that child labor laws aim to create for them. Here with a vim is a project for coming of age!

TOWARD COMMERCIAL PEACE

THAT it is possible through arbitration of disputes to protect a commodity against the loss of time and money in litigation was first demonstrated in this country in 1913 by certain branches of the food industry. How far this movement to maintain commercial peace by self-regulation has been carried in the intervening years is revealed in the first annual report of the president of the American Arbitration Association, Lucius R. Eastman. Commercial arbitration has found a foothold or a well-established place in some thirty-three industries, in such diverse fields as confectionery, financial institutions, paints and varnish, real estate, rubber, silk, heat, light and power, the amusement and theatrical industry in all its branches, and so on. The American Arbitration Association, which arose from the consolidation of the Arbitration Foundation, the Arbitration Society of America, and the Arbitration Conference, has assumed the functions of a clearing house and a laboratory, avoiding the establishment of new machinery where existing organizations could be made to serve the purpose.

"We found a movement in which practice had far outgrown theory," declares Mr. Eastman, "and faced the necessity of building a foundation of legal and economic knowledge under the practice." As matters of general policy the association has limited its activities to commercial disputes, refusing to be drawn into political or labor controversies; it confines its activities to the western continent, except in assisting the financing of certain international publications; it favors the development of arbitration under uniform state statutes, rather than the settlement of commercial disputes in other ways; aids the foundation of a body of accurate knowledge on the subject through the cooperation of universities and faculties trained in research work, and endeavors to bring to the extension of commercial arbitration the cooperation of business and the law. During the past year among its many activities it has actively promoted the passage of uniform state laws in this field, and has carried out both legal and economic research resulting in the publication of important source material, including an Arbitration Year Book which will constitute the basis for all subsequent economic studies. In New York alone the association found, at the outset, more than eighty trade or commercial tribunals, while scattered throughout the country there are more than five hundred organizations which have endorsed or established the principle of arbitration, or have it under consideration. "The work which the association is doing to eliminate force and ill-will and vicious practices from trade relations is in the interest of

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all commerce," Mr. Eastman concludes. "Whether or not they are burdened with the costs of disputes, all industries should bring to this great undertaking their suggestions, criticisms, and support in order that commercial peace, generally, may prevail in the United States."

WHY NEW YORK IS SO

ONE answer to the anxious enquiries of visitors as to the nerve-wracking hustle of New York is found in an analysis of the metropolitan population recently completed by the New York Tuberculosis and Health Association. New York, the association finds, is predominantly a city of the young adult. Within its boundaries there are 350,000 more men and women between the ages of twenty and forty-five than would be found in a "standard" American population of this size. Children and old people are correspondingly lacking. The New York excess of the comparatively youthful is especially marked among men from thirty to thirty-five years of age, and even more striking among women between twenty-five and thirty; their numbers have continued in the same proportion, probably showing the "lure of the big city" in opportunities for work, through the succeeding censuses of 1900, 1910 and 1920. The chance to find work outside the home is thought to account for the fact that there are slightly more women than men in the total population of the city. The New York marriage rate is high, much higher than that of London. A higher rate in this country than in England is a general characteristic, which may show, the report declares, a greater prosperity or a more youthful population, and is probably also influenced strongly by the prevalence of divorce in this country, which makes it possible for many Americans to appear matrimonially in the census more than once. While New Yorkers marry freely, the output of children is comparatively small and the birthrate is very much lower than would be expected from a population of this age constitution. But perhaps at that point New Yorkers move to the suburbs to make room for the incoming tide of hopeful and energetic youngsters who serve to maintain the metropolis as the juvenile lead among great cities of the world.

PROTECTING MIDDLE AGE

WHEN health workers jubilate in the achieved addition of twenty years to American life expectancy, they mean not that the old live longer, but that a rapidly increasing number of us survive the perils of infancy and childhood and attain the fair (if no longer fat) forties and the decades following. By that fact are the problems of the public health movement augmented, since these years if comparatively unvexed by such ailments as measles or diphtheria, have pitfalls peculiarly their own. In recognition of this enlarging focus of scientific interest, the Lasker Foundation for Medical Research is to be established at the University of Chicago with an initial endowment of $1,000,000 given by Albert D. Lasker and Flora W. Lasker. This foundation, according to Max Mason, president of the university, "will constitute a unit attack on the diseases of men and women of middle and old age when their intelligence is at the highest and their value to the community is the greatest." In announcing the gift, officers of the university point out that while there has been an enormous gain in checking the diseases of childhood, the conquest of so-called degenerative diseases has remained almost at a standstill. "The individual who reaches the age of 50 has today no greater expectancy of life than he would have had 100 years ago," declared Dr. F. C. McLean, head of the University's medical department. "Following the brilliant researches of Koch and Pasteur, it was natural that most of the creative work of medicine went into the field of infectious disease and untold advantages to mankind have resulted. Now that the pace of discovery is slackening somewhat it appears reasonable to direct effort toward the diseases which appear in later life as evidence of the premature decay of one or more of the vital organs, notably the heart, blood vessels, and kidneys." Probably the first efforts of the new foundation will be focussed on heart disease and Bright's disease.

THE TOO-COMMON COLD

COMMON colds cost more, in point of working days lost, than any other ill that besets Americans. Probably the lion's share of $500,000,000 spent annually on drugs in this country goes to some 45,000 remedies optimistically reputed to prevent or abolish sneezles and wheezles. Yet in the sober eye of science, we know almost nothing of the cause of colds, still less how they can be cured. For some years the United States Public Health Service has been engaged in an extensive study of this subject in cooperation with some of the colleges and other groups representing widely different parts of the country. A first "cold wave" comes early in the autumn, in October or November. Then there follows a period of comparative immunity, broken by a second peak, higher and of a more serious character than the first, which starts in late January and carries through February and March, when all the respiratory diseases, including pneumonia, are at their worst. These general trends were surprisingly similar in the most widely different climates. From a somewhat different angle than that of the Public Health Service, Johns Hopkins University is launching a five-year period of research into common colds, financed by a grant of $195,000 by the Chemical Foundation, which is named the John J. Abel Fund in honor of the professor of pharmacology of the University, whose researches led to the discovery and synthetic production of adrenalin. Under this fund a group of specialists in physiological chemistry, and allied scientists, will study the subject from scratch—trying to find out just what colds are, how they are spread, and what can be done to prevent them and cure them. Here indeed is research in which the ordinary suffering citizen will take a heartfelt (or perhaps one might say nosey) interest.

AN EMPLOYER FACES FACTS

IN the maze of charges and counter-charges made by witnesses before the state Industrial Commission investigating the present strike in the Colorado coal fields (see page 644) a statement by Merle D. Vincent, vice president of the Rocky Mountain Fuel Company, deserves wide reading and thoughtful consideration. It applies as well to other phases of American industry as to the crisis which called it forth. After reviewing the present state of the coal industry in this country, Mr. Vincent said, in part:

"In the dispute immediately confronting us, the miners charge that conditions are the cause of the strike. Operators have denied this assertion and charge that the I.W.W. is

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the cause of the strike. An impartial observer would probably declare that . . . while this organization is immediately responsible for the strike call, conditions are primarily the cause of some 5,000 miners striking.

"The complaints and demands of the miners fall roughly into two classes. The first includes charges that certain provisions of the law are not observed by operators. . . . This dispute over provisions of the mining law is one of the chief causes of the strike and one which can be immediately removed. The miners' right to check weighmen, inspection committees and the observance of other provisions of law by operators ought not be a subject of debate. Disregard of any law by any class of persons breeds contempt for law in others. Without further reference to past practices, the settled policy should be one of operating in accordance with the provisions of the mining law.

"The second class of complaints are not so easily disposed of. . . . One serious charge is that complaints and grievances, whatever their nature, cannot be made or, if made and repeated, usually result in the discharge of the person making the complaint. . . .

"It is worth observing that disagreement between private persons and between private concerns in the business world . . . are carried into courts and settled by the application of rules based on reason and good sense. When, however, far more than personal issues and private property rights are involved as they are in the coal industry, affecting vast investments, thousands of employes, and affecting public interest, too, no reasonable, practical and business-like method of settlement is resorted to. No sensible machinery has been developed for this purpose. Apparently the only remedy understood is force. . . .

"In order to establish practical and satisfactory working relations between operator and miner it is necessary to provide some means by which complaints of practices and conditions can be heard and adjusted. . . . What I suggest to this Commission is that it simply face facts which are of common public knowledge and after making the investigation make such recommendations as the facts before it appear to justify. This would promise a settlement that will not leave conditions which will burst into flame again and cause another strike. It should hold elements of a permanent settlement with some means suggested by which difficulties in the future may be taken up and removed before conflicts of this nature reach the point of a strike."

WORKERS USE A NEW TOOL

"YES, but what *use* is it?" is a frequent question, asked both by wage earners and by their friends in discussing workers' education. An interesting answer was recently given by the American Federation of Full Fashioned Hosiery Workers in reporting an application of workers' education principles to a difficult industrial situation.

The question was that of establishing a national minimum piece-price scale in the industry. A tentative scale was worked out by a central committee, to be submitted to the locals. The union officials found that the chief obstacle in the way of the plan was not the opposition of employers but the lack of understanding of the principle involved on the part of the union membership. "In order to clarify the minds of our members," Gustave Geiges, the union president states, "we presented the scale to them with a written explanation of the situation in our industry as a whole in the business world today." This statement summarized data showing the tendency of representative industries in all countries, once stabilized, to establish a national minimum scale. The explanation also included an abstract of the chapter on National Uniform Wage from Industrial Democracy by Sydney and Beatrice Webb. "We found that many of the current arguments of our members on this matter were identical with the arguments on the same subject made almost fifty years ago by British workers in a very different industry," Mr. Geiges says. "We were able to show from the Webbs' work how trade unions must submerge certain sectional advantages in order to benefit their trade as a whole and how the most arrogant anti-union employers in the past have accepted in fact the necessity for national uniformity while condemning it in theory. This experiment in seeking to use educational methods in dealing with practical trade questions seems to be working out very well indeed and we shall certainly make every effort to tie up our educational work as far as possible with all the routine activities of our union."

AN ECONOMICS LABORATORY FOR YALE

MODERN colleges give their students the advantage of laboratory experiment in physics, chemistry, biology, botany and other science courses. It is not often that college students have opportunity for more than a textbook-classroom acquaintance with questions of economics and government.

Members of the Yale Liberal Club have recently been studying at first hand a laboratory example of modern labor problems. Some time ago, two neckwear factories "ran away" from New York to New Haven, to escape the standards of wages and working conditions established by the union. Last fall the workers went on strike, in protest against the sweatshop conditions under which they were expected to work. Members of the Liberal Club became interested in this situation. Some of them attempted to join the strikers in a picketing demonstration. In October, three of them were arrested but the cases were dropped. Later, three members of the club compiled a pamphlet entitled, Is This Fair Play? In it, according to The New Student, "they discussed the neckwear situation from four points of view: the case for the employers, the case for the union, civil liberties involved, and the newspaper situation in New Haven."

Forty-five students set out "to acquaint New Haven with its factory conditions" by distributing this pamphlet. Eighteen thousand copies were distributed before the police took a hand. Nineteen students were arrested. A test case went against the students when Judge Dunn in the City Court fined the youth two dollars without costs, after pointing out that

> The merits of any industrial controversy are not an issue in the consideration of the alleged violation of the city ordinance. The ordinance is one common to cities for the purpose of keeping the streets clean. If the distributer wanted to disseminate the same information . . . he may send his literature through the mail, he may deposit it in the mail box or under the door of each house and, in fact, these methods, which are permitted by law, would seem more efficacious than the method of handing them out to pedestrians. . . . It is just as unlawful for a merchant, a charitable organization or a patriotic organization . . . to distribute handbills as it is for the representatives of a labor union or members of the university.

A statement issued on behalf of the students, a few days

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before the case was brought, made it clear, according to the New York Times, that "while a small number felt inclined to help the neckwear workers in their strike efforts, the mass of the undergraduates did not move until their free speech efforts had been cut down by police action and by the refusal of the newspapers of New Haven to publish a word of the incident."

The students announce that the case will be carried by appeal to the Court of Common Pleas. Failing there, they will take it to the Supreme Court to prove their claim that "the ordinance abridges the constitutional rights and liberty of New Haven citizens."

All this may be embarrassing to the university and of little help to the neckwear workers, but it can scarcely fail to acquaint these boys with the fact that their campus fringes on an industrial civilization.

TAKING STOCK OF THE STORES

NEARLY forty years ago the Consumers' League inaugurated its campaign to secure better working conditions and a living wage for women store workers (see The Survey, Aug. 15, 1926, p. 549). A gauge of the progress that has been made is to be found in the report of the study of the personnel practices in thirty-two modern department stores recently made by the Bureau of Women and Children of the Pennsylvania Department of Labor and Industry.

When the Consumers' League undertook its crusade, the workday of store employes often stretched from eight in the morning to eleven thirty at night, with unpaid overtime on Sundays and holidays. The basic weekly hours in the Pennsylvania stores studied ranged from 44½ in one store to between 50 and 53 in twelve. Sixty per cent of the stores had a scheduled week of less than fifty hours. Two-thirds of the stores were closed Saturday evenings, traditionally the great shopping period. Nineteen of the thirty-two stores give a weekly half holiday during the summer months and two a full holiday. The report points out that in only two of the stores "was the schedule of hours shortened to conform to the Woman's Labor Law of 1915." Nineteen of the stores reported that the change had resulted from a merchants' agreement in the city or on the initiative of the store management. This new attitude, the report states, came "as a movement by the merchants themselves and in response to public opinion."

The study discloses that the department stores do not yet recognize the principle of "equal pay for equal work." The weekly median wage for men in selling positions was found to be $26.17, for women $16.13. "Nearly 40 per cent of the women and not quite 10 per cent of the men received less than $15 a week. . . . Nine out of every ten positions where weekly earnings were $45 or more were filled by men."

In the nineties, the Consumers' League urged, on behalf of store employes, the establishment of better working conditions, including seats and permission to use them, a lunch period of at least half an hour, clean lunch and rest rooms and sanitary and adequate toilet facilities. To this minimum standard of decency, this report shows there has been added for the employes of many modern department stores such comforts and safeguards as store cafeterias, individual lockers, hospital rooms with nurse in attendance, pianos, phonographs and libraries in the rest rooms, hot water in the washrooms, individual towel service, paper cups or bubblers for drinking water, job training, group insurance, sickness and death benefits, and old age pensions.

The report gives an informing analysis of personnel policies in a representative group of city stores. It is even more significant, however, as witness to the progress that results from the steady, untiring pressure of enlightened public opinion.

A BRINGER OF LIGHT

THE World's Fair at Chicago, the Columbian Exposition of 1892-3, gave many Americans their first glimpse of what Edison's invention was to mean—the sky pricked out by electric lights that outlined the courts and peristyles, the towers and graceful buildings of the White City. To small-town visitors it was sheer delight in its contrast to the forbidding masses of smoke-blackened urban landscape, thrown up by the rising industrialism of the Mississippi Valley. It was in a sense a symbol of what went forward in the Middle West in those years. Here a governor, there a mayor; here a settlement worker, there an educator; here a business man, there a labor man, gave new and dynamic leadership. The social movements they set going riffled along the horizons like incandescent bulbs in the hands of the men and women who took part in them. They augured a day of glowing cities, more humanly gracious commonwealths, a fairer America for Lincoln's plain people.

As preacher in Chicago, Jenkin Lloyd Jones was such a light bringer. As editor, his was a circuit riding in a new sense. And the editorial currents he set going in Unity half a century ago, re-invigorated by the new leadership of new days, prick out for us new sky-lines of aspiration and common purpose.

March 1 marks the 50th anniversary of the founding of Unity by Dr. Jones, and John Haynes Holmes, and his associates in its editing, are bringing out a special number in celebration. This will underscore Unity's long time espousals of "international peace, racial brotherhood, religious unity and the larger liberty of men everywhere."

HOW IT WORKS

DUE largely to the pertinacity of John B. Andrews of the American Association for Labor Legislation, the federal Longshoremen's and Harbor Workers' Compensation Act was passed by Congress last spring and went into effect on July 1. Commissioner Jerome G. Locke, in charge of the administration of the law in New York harbor has just published a report covering the first six months of the law's operation. Up to December 31, accidents to the number of 5,661 had been entered on his record; during the first two weeks of the new year, 200 additional cases chargeable to 1927 were reported, a total of 5,861. Of these more than 4,000 have already been settled by correspondence, informal hearing and, in twelve cases only, by formal hearing. The remainder are in process of rapid adjustment under the common sense provisions of the law. Commissioner Locke attributes this conspicuously successful performance to the "splendid spirit" shown by the employers, the insurance carriers and the injured workmen. In the face of this record, it would be interesting to know what the interested persons, notably employers and insurance carriers, now think of their thirteen years of opposition to the enactment of this federal law, for lack of which (see The Survey, Feb. 15, 1927, p. 620) thousands of men were injured, many killed, without compensation to themselves or their families.

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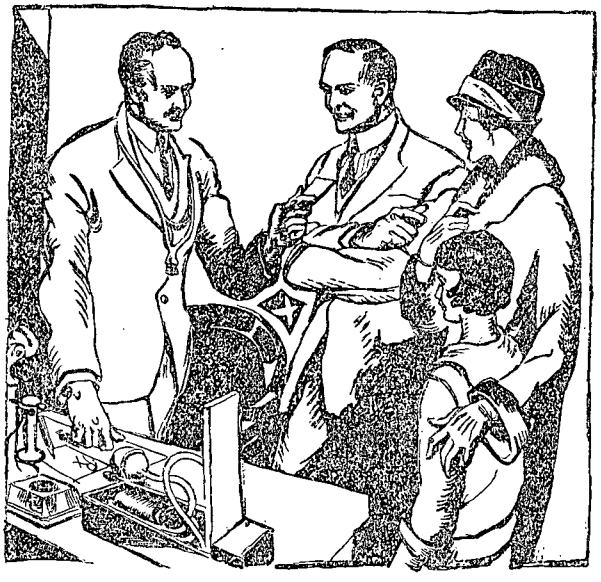
HEALTH

Bettering the Race

By JOHN A. KINGSBURY

THE Third Race Betterment Conference held January 2-6 at Battle Creek, Michigan, brought together a group of leading scientists, educators, government officials and journalists to assemble the facts of race degeneracy and discuss ways and means of applying science to human living that a longer, happier and more efficient life may become the heritage of each individual, resulting ultimately in the universal improvement of the human race. A second officially stated purpose of the conference was to give impetus to the dissemination of these facts, for as Edward Alsworth Ross, professor of sociology of the University of Wisconsin, said, "No serum does more for public health than printer's ink."

At special group conferences set aside for the purpose the most recent discoveries and practices in the fields of bacteriology, medicine, nutrition, eugenics, physiology and education were considered. As in the World Population Conference held last summer in Switzerland, the main current of interest in the proceedings centered about the discussion of the rapidly decreasing death-rate and the consideration of the possibility of having to limit the birth-rate in order that the human race may secure sufficient balance to avert the catastrophy prophesied by Professor Ross in his most recent book to the effect that if things go on as at present there may be "Standing Room Only" in the United States by the end of the next sixty years.



Courtesy the Health Journal, Massachusetts

At the Conference, Professor Ross raised the further uncomfortable question as to whether those standing sixty years from now will represent the survival of the fittest, declaring that the differential birth-rate is influencing American racial quality and is a factor to be considered in race degeneracy. Statistics indicated, he said, that the undesirable elements in this country are producing two to one-third times as fast as the desirable. This situation is not confined to America only but is of international significance, since recent studies by scientists in England and France reveal similar situations in those countries.

Among the noted delegates from the world-famous research laboratories of this country was Dr. Alexis Carrel of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, who came to describe the successful termination of an important experiment in a paper entitled, The Immortality of Animal Tissues and Its Significance. On January 17, 1912, Dr. Carrel extracted several small fragments from the heart of a chick embryo. All these fragments died save one minute portion much smaller than a pinhead. Although the life of a fowl rarely exceeds ten years, this tiny fragment has remained alive and pulsating for sixteen years. During this time it has been carefully cultivated, bathed and fed with chemical solutions, and pruned of all bacterial infections, and it has continued to multiply at a tremendous rate. "Today," said Dr. Carrel, "hundreds of experiments are made every month with the pure strain of fibroblasts descended from the tiny fragment of pulsating tissue that I possessed in 1912."

Dr. Carrel feels that this experiment has brought to light two important factors, which in his own words are:

> The fibroblasts derived from the original heart fragment manufacture large quantities of new tissue from the substances contained in the culture medium. In forty-eight hours, each cell of a colony seems to divide twice, and the colony doubles in volume. Had it been possible to keep all the cells which could have been produced during these sixteen years, their mass would be immense. A colony originally one cubic millimeter in volume would produce approximately one cubic centimeter of tissue in about twenty days. After sixty days, the volume of the tissue would be a little more than one cubic meter, and in less than 100 days, 1,000,000 cubic meters. It is obvious that tissues growing at this rate for sixteen years would reach a volume greater than that of the solar system.

Cell proliferation is unlimited in time. Today, the rate of growth of the strain of fibroblasts is as great as it was fifteen years ago. The course representing the variations of the growth velocity during this long period is parallel to the time axis. Time has no action whatever on these tissues. They are immortal.

Dr. Carrel could not hold out to individuals the promise of immortality, for he said that "although the body is composed of elements that are potentially immortal . . . cells living as parts of an organized community do not find in such an environment the conditions required for immortality." Thus the body will always eventually decay and death will come to each individual. The great significance of the experiment for human beings, according to

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Dr. Carrel, lies in the fact that there is some hope that the span of life may be artificially increased. "The solution of this problem, as well as of the far more important one of improving the quality of living beings, rests on the future progress of cell physiology and of the chemistry of nutrition," he declared.

PROFESSOR E. M. EAST of Harvard University discussed The Genetic Basis of Eugenics. Professor East is one of the three American members of an international committee appointed last summer at the World Population Conference to study population problems, and author of a fascinating book on population, Mankind at the Crossroads. He deplored the errors of fundamentalism and discussed frankly the tabus, the mysticism, and the sentimentalism that stand in the way of universal acceptance of the truths of the new scientific era. Overpopulation and the propagation of the unfit, he feels, can be avoided "through a reasonable practice of eugenic measures, guided into proper channels by genetic knowledge." He spoke again, as he did in an article in a recent number of The Forum, of the importance of psychology, "the study of the nature, function, and phenomena of the mind," and of genetics, "the investigation of heredity, variation and evolution." These two sciences are, he believes, the outstanding guideposts of the new era on which this generation is embarking.

Dr. Eugene Fisk, director of the Life Extension Institute, expressed hopefulness that man might yet acquire a life cycle of 100 years. The average lifetime of a man, he pointed out, has increased thirty-seven years during the past 400 years, and thirteen years of this increase have been added within the last thirty years. Later Professor Irving Fisher of Yale University also spoke hopefully of the prospect of lengthening human life. Dr. Franklin H. Martin, director-general of the American College of Surgeons and president of the Gorgas Memorial Institute, said he believed that within the next half century half of the people in the United States would submit to periodic physical examinations, by this method further curbing the development of disease, and thus lessening the number of untimely deaths which might have been postponed to later periods of life.

A FITTER Families Contest was conducted during the conference under the direction of the American Eugenics Society of which Leon F. Whitney is executive secretary. The contest was directed by a local committee headed by Luther S. West, professor of biology in Battle Creek College, an authority on eugenics, with Dr. Florence Brown Sherbon of the University of Kansas, formerly chief of the Child Research Bureau of Kansas and one of the originators of the idea, as the specialist in charge. The competition was organized for its educational value and was particularly designed to interest people in the laws of inheritance and health. A thorough examination was given each member of all the families that entered the contest; each member received an individual score, and the family score was based on the average of these. Twenty-four Battle Creek families, two of them containing eight children each, were examined and a prize was awarded to the healthiest family. (See The Survey, February 15, 1924, page 517; Fitter Families, by Mary T. Watts, an account of Mrs. Watts' and Dr. Sherbon's expansion of the better babies idea to include older children and parents as well.)

Among other educational features of the conference were some fine exhibits, one a Sunlight exhibit constructed by the child nutrition department of the Battle Creek College and another a model playground arranged by the Playground and Recreation Association of America. A unique collection of foreign and American films, a number of which were made by one of the foremost producers of scientific motion pictures, were shown under the auspices of the Rockefeller Institute for Medical Research, the United States Department of Labor, the Rockefeller Foundation and the Battle Creek Sanitarium. Individual members of the conference also staged special film exhibits illustrating their addresses and the scientific research or other work which they had under way.

An event which distracted the serious thinkers and furnished much fun was an evening of old-fashioned dancing under the direction of Benjamin Lovett of Detroit, Michigan, who has been employed by Henry Ford over a period of several years to stimulate the revival of old American dances, which Mr. Ford thinks provide a social rather than a sex appeal. Mr. and Mrs. Ford attended the conference, arriving the evening scheduled for the dancing. After an evening of listening to profound papers, the grave scientists danced the old-fashioned quadrille with young co-eds of Battle Creek College where doctors, nurses, nutrition workers and the like receive courses and clinical practice to train them for work in various specialized fields of health.

THE Third Race Betterment Conference was held under the auspices of the Race Betterment Foundation, of which Dr. John Harvey Kellogg is the founder and president. President C. C. Little of the University of Michigan served as president of the conference and the Battle Creek Sanitarium acted as host. The first national conference initiated by the Race Betterment Movement was held in 1914 at Battle Creek. The president of that conference was Dr. Stephen Smith of New York City, founder of the American Public Health Association, who was then more than ninety years of age and still in active service as a leading member of the New York State Board of Charities. The late President Charles W. Eliot of Harvard University was the honorary chairman. Other distinguished names appeared among the first list of officers, and more than 150 social welfare organizations sent delegates. Another conference was held in August, 1915, in San Francisco. The principal questions considered at the two early conferences were: What are the causes of the growing race deterioration that threatens to destroy our modern civilization? What can be done to avert such a catastrophe? Thirteen years have rolled by in which those scientists who made up the earlier conferences have studied these questions and stimulated others to study them. During these years the evolution of a new era of science has gone forward at a rapid pace, and a partial answer to the first question has emerged from the painstaking studies of the scientists and educators. The participants in the Third Race Betterment Conference think they know what might be done to avert race deterioration and prevent overpopulation, but the big problem is to convince the blind leaders of the fundamentalists, and to overcome the sentimentalism and mysticism and ignorance of the masses—and the changing of the folkways and the mores of the people is never an easy task.

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Is Paresis a Social Problem?

By MARY GOODYEAR EARLE

NO ONE denies that syphilis is a social problem particularly from the standpoint of the possibilities of prevention. But the problem of general paralysis of the insane, or paresis, is all too often considered merely as the problem of syphilis. From the standpoint of prevention the two are the same. Viewing paresis, however, as a dangerous and often unsuspected behavior disorder in an officer of the army (90 per cent of a group of insane army officers studied by Krafft Ebing had general paralysis); in the engineer running a locomotive; in a taxicab driver; in a surgeon; in the man who shot one of the mayors of New York City; in the famous writer of a profound philosophy which may have been said to influence a nation, from the medico-legal tangles which it sometimes produces, general paralysis might be said to constitute a social problem in and of itself.

As Dr. William A. White says, "The pity of it all is that it might have been prevented." Dr. White does not mean in this instance that syphilis could have been avoided, but that a more prompt recognition of this dreadful malady would have prevented the tragic results ensuing because a man suffering from a dangerous and progressive mental disease, truly insane in the legal sense, is allowed to continue on his way as a normal and responsible individual. He may and often does ruin his family and possibly his business associates in his wild money-making schemes before family physician or friends suspect that this is a case for the psychiatrist. "Protean as are the manifestations of this disease," declares Dr. White in Outlines of Psychiatry,

> it is not strange that it should often go unrecognized during its early stages, yet there is probably no disease in which a failure to make a correct diagnosis is so fraught with such manifest dangers, not only to the patient, but to his family, his friends or in fact to any one, who not recognizing his condition, may be induced to enter into business relations with him. A father of a family occupying an enviable social position, becomes at the height of his career an ardent worshipper at the shrines of Venus and Bacchus. How many heartaches, pangs of anguish, blushes of shame, could be spared the wife and family, if the family physician did but recognize in these occurrences the symptoms of the onset of mental disease and advise them what course to pursue!

As an obscure disease, one often most difficult to diagnose in its atypical forms but invariably of syphilitic origin, comparatively unknown to the intelligent layman, involving as it often does at its onset the behavior of the person afflicted—and particularly his judgment, his moral and esthetic sense and his self-control, essentially the highest psychic functions—paresis may well be considered a social problem of the most insidious nature.

The name general paralysis is decidedly a misleading term, for this is no paralysis as understood by the man in the street, no slowly creeping incapacity of nerves and muscles, no "stroke" to gradually wear away. All of these symptoms may be present and many more, but these are not the outstanding and vital factors which condemn a man or woman to confinement in an insane asylum or often make him a menace to his family and the public. General paralysis is essentially a disorder of conduct as well as a profound physical malady frequently undreamed of in the beginning and well into its medico-legal phase, even by the physician, for doctors in general practice are not specialists in behavior disorders and the physical signs may at first be lacking. There may be nothing to indicate that the person is not responsible for his actions and yet this condition is liable to become evident at any time. The patient may have no known history of syphilitic sore or infection. As one searches through the histories of those who have died of this disease, it is interesting to note the frequency of the words "no history of venereal disease," yet here is a syphilitic infection of the nervous system as well as the brain tissue.

One not knowing much of the complexity and capriciousness of paresis might hastily conclude that here was merely the age-old problem of syphilis. Yet other forms of this dangerous disease often give definite physical signs that a man has become infected and must hasten to be treated—a sore, a rash or some trouble with the eyes. In paresis, the situation is quite different. There is at least one case on record, that of a prominent government official, whose diagnosis was made on the peculiarities of his handwriting alone. This man showed no neurological or mental symptoms, there was no history of syphilis, but the serological findings confirmed the diagnosis. A deadly mental ailment had already made serious inroads, and his handwriting first betrayed the fact!

Singularly enough the cases of paresis which have a history of known syphilis seem to be the ones that have been so mildly infected as to have omitted treatment altogether or else to have given it up when symptoms ceased to bother them. These unfortunates may consider the tragic experience a skeleton in the closet of the past, but nevertheless a skeleton. Yet this mild infection, apparently long since cured, may develop some five to twenty-five years later into a shocking affliction, leading to dementia and necessary commitment to a mental hospital, unless a stroke (the gentle friend of the paralytic) mercifully terminates the ghastly comedy. In its classical type paresis is just that, a ghastly comedy, as some poor creature tells you in all earnestness that he is "king of the world," a multimillionaire owning thousands of ships, or that he is the "finest singer in the universe," in his pathetic cracked voice. He never felt better in his life and says so, though he may be marked for speedy death.

GENERAL paralysis is no respecter of economic class, educational or social status and attacks both men and women, for the most part married men and women, although men in greater numbers. It is a disease most especially of early middle life in cities, as the rate per 100,000 of the population shows 8.6 for urban and 2. for rural communities in the United States. A high rate of paresis is found among persons employed in domestic and personal service, and in the professional services there is an exceedingly high rate among actors, editors, authors and reporters and among musicians and music teachers, and a low rate among clergymen, draughtsmen, physicians and school teachers. The intelligent and well-educated seem to be no more immune

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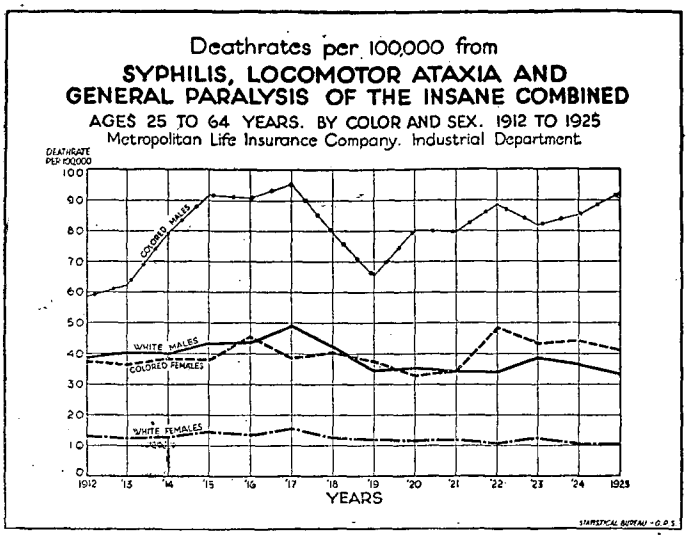
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Courtesy Metropolitan Life Insurance Company

than the others and the statistics from 88 state hospitals show twice the percentage of paretics coming from colleges as for all other insanities combined; the percentages for males from high school are 9.6 with paresis to 7.2 for those with all other psychoses combined. Statistics from private hospitals and sanatoria would doubtless show much higher percentages of well-educated people as chiefly those in poverty go to state hospitals for the insane.

In the peculiarities of its behavior, general paralysis may imitate any psychosis, and yet it is distinctly different from them all: different in the sense that paretics stay apparently normal and responsible for from a few months to sometimes several years, in the earliest stage, and in spite of this there is a slow but surely progressive deterioration in the judgment, the ethical, esthetic and moral senses. This apparent normality is further complicated by the remissions which may last for from a few months to many years, during which a man may leave the asylum and again resume his occupation with perfect freedom to do as he pleases, but with every likelihood that sooner or later there will be a repetition of scandalous or tragic performances. The first real evidence of misbehavior may be the forging of a check or the stealing of jewels by a formerly upright and honest man, for which he is sent to the Tombs instead of to the mental hospital; or a stroke of paralysis may be the first danger signal in a man who up to that time may have been performing the difficult duties of an accountant with perfect satisfaction to his employers, and within the year he may have died the death of a typical paretic. Just such a case is on record. Statistics in the state hospitals serving New York City say that the ratio among first admissions is 1 in every 5. It is estimated on reliable statistics that approximately 5,500 persons with general paralysis die annually in hospitals from mental disease in this country.

WERE the readily available facts concerning the consequences of syphilis in this particular direction known thoroughly to social service workers (always excepting psychiatric social service workers, for they know them thoroughly), to trained nurses and to the public at large, there would be a revelation of horror which would spur public policy to eradicate its forerunner, syphilis. Think of the time and fortune spent on tuberculosis, on typhoid, on saving the lives of babies, and yet an ignorant and uninformed civilization permits a preventable and horrible comedy such as paresis to be enacted in all of the greatest countries of the world. The conspiracy of silence concerning truly shocking facts still endures. An uninformed and foolish person might regard syphilis as a vile but curable disease and rightly, but would any sane and intelligent person who knew the possible consequences, take risks which might involve his becoming one of 5 per cent or 8 per cent of syphilitics to end their days among the incurably insane; particularly if he knew that there might never be even such subjective evidence of syphilitic infection as to lead him to hasten to a physician for advice? There lies the menace and the problem, the insidious disaster lurking in the nervous tissue as a man goes successfully and happily on his life's career.

If the medical departments of all agencies dealing with human beings in great numbers, such as large stores, factories, and service corporations, would make more routine use of the spinal fluid Wassermann in suspicious cases of this nature (remembering that the blood Wassermann may be negative in cases of general paralysis though the spinal fluid contains the germs of syphilis), much might be accomplished for early diagnosis.

A PERSON may have cerebral syphilis or tabes dorsalis, another type of neurosyphilis, but there is no conduct problem; he is not insane as judges understand that term, although in the former he has a brain disease; but if he have general paralysis he may commit rape, he may "stain his hands in blood" or wreck an army, before any one but a psychiatrist would suspect his disorder. A short time ago a judge sentenced an English actor to the workhouse for unusual behavior and yet even the casual write-up of his symptoms by a reporter marks him as probably paretic. The judge did not know it, or he would have turned him over to a psychiatrist for an examination. Should he not have known it, as a man disposing of the liberty of others and protecting society? Should he not have at least thought of the possibility? That man will come out of the workhouse in ten days and may appear quite normal, but what will happen next?

The records of a state hospital for the insane contain many stories like these actual instances:

B. A. Age 41. Once a salesman making $200 weekly. No history of venereal disease. Disposition happy and cheerful, frank and open. Habits moderate until two years ago when he began to drink to excess. Onset: arrested one month ago for presenting three checks at Waldorf for $25,000 and sent to the Tombs for two weeks. His wife does not think anything seemed wrong with his mind previous to this except that he was irritable.

M. N. Age 50. Wife of lawyer prominent in political and social affairs; no history of venereal disease in husband or patient. Doctor told husband that she had a "touch of inherited syphilis"; was treated and later said to be cured. Two years prior to admission to this hospital patient showed lack of emotional control: had episodes of rage, was irritable and complaining, had difficulty in holding dishes and would drop them. A year ago her memory was affected; she became more irritable; complained that her husband ill-used her, and threatened to consult a lawyer. Numerous difficulties with neighbors. Five months before admission she began to claim great wealth. At the hospital she is talkative, boisterous, with rapid emotional variations and talks about her great wealth and her gold bed.

F. G. Age 39. Piano-maker. A good father, always home when not working, bright, intelligent, fond of reading. Held

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same position twenty years. Onset two years ago. Became nervous, irritable, shoulders would twitch, went to clinic for treatment. Six months ago he became very forgetful and later his right arm became numb. Just prior to admission he had a facial convulsion. Died three weeks after admission.

REGARDLESS of any knowledge of syphilis, well-read and intelligent laymen, most especially those interested in human problems of all sorts, and all physicians, all lawyers and judges, all social service workers and all trained nurses should have some knowledge of paresis as a behavior disorder. More publicity about it and its nature as a true insanity, a disease entity, its dependence upon syphilis, as well as some knowledge of its prevalence, might assist in reducing the number of cases, as well as controlling some of its worst consequences in the unrecognized stages.

Could we not do much to reduce the incidence of general paralysis by some reorganization of the propaganda against syphilis, by putting greater emphasis upon the danger to the individual through this unsuspected and insidious menace—the possibility of incurable insanity, much as the propaganda against cancer warns people to remove all irritated moles and other trifling but constant sources of irritation in spite of the fact that but a small percentage of these places ever prove cancerous? Is not this a social problem and one entirely apart from the cause of the disease—the problem of preventable insanity, abroad and unsuspected in the community at large?

"THE most important development in connection with the work of the School of Social Service Administration at the University of Chicago," declares the current issue of Social Service, the publication of the Chicago Council of Social Agencies, "is the establishment of the medical social work in connection with the University Clinic recently opened." Ruth Emerson is the director of the new service, assisted by Kathleen Allen.

DEPICTING its problems and progress so that all may read, the Alabama Tuberculosis Association has prepared a mimeographed graphic analysis of tuberculosis in that state, showing by age, color, and county the points where the greatest improvement has been made and those at which a concentration of effort still is needed. Certain of the counties are included in the charts and tabulation which comprise the report, while charts for any other county which desires them for use in visualizing their tuberculosis problem will be supplied by the association.

OPTIMISTS as to the prospect of a bigger and better human race will find comfort from an unexpected quarter in a letter written by a manufacturer of children's clothing to the Journal of the American Medical Association. During the past year, for the first time in thirty-eight years' manufacturing experience, the firm has received complaints that the neckbands of dresses for babies aged one, two, and three, were too small. In fact, so persistent did the complaints become, that new patterns have been adopted to allow an extra inch at the gurgling point. There is room for sectional pride in that the greatest number of complaints came from California. Babies, too, it is disclosed, are sharing in the emancipation advocated by the physician of one of the women's colleges who recently declared freedom of the knees to be even more important than freedom of the seas. "First long dresses" now measure 20 inches, instead of the earlier 30 inches, and a lesser, but still liberating, amount has been clipped from the skirts of the youngest generation all along the line.

IN MEMORY of the man whose work made the building of the Panama Canal possible, a committee under the honorary presidency of President Coolidge, is endeavoring to raise an endowment of $5,000,000 to establish the Gorgas Memorial Institute of Tropical and Preventive Medicine. The proposed program includes promotion of popular health education in this country, and of the campaign for periodic medical examinations; research in tropical diseases, in which the Republic of Panama will cooperate by the donation of a site and the floating of a $750,000 bond issue to finance a Gorgas Memorial Laboratory, and a campaign for mosquito abatement. The executive offices of the committee are at 400 North Michigan Avenue, Chicago.

Under the general direction of General James G. Harbord, The Leonard Wood Memorial for the Eradication of Leprosy is appealing for a fund of $2,000,000 to promote and extend the research which seems to have obtained a cure for leprosy in chaulmoogra oil, and a home to which babies born in the leper colony at Gulion may be taken before they become infected with their parents' disease. One of the last acts of General Wood, himself a physician, was a public appeal for funds to eradicate leprosy in the Philippines and to promote

Pertinent Publications

HEALTH TRENDS IN SECONDARY EDUCATION. *The American Child Health Association, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Price* $1.00.

A substantial summary of the association's study of the best methods and procedures for teaching health in secondary schools, offering both a resume of what has been done and forward-looking suggestions of what may be done in the future.

SMALLPOX IS PREVENTABLE. *American Association for Medical Progress, Inc., 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Single copies free.*

The why and wherefore of a wholly avoidable disease which counted 33,343 cases in the United States in 1926. New and completely revised edition.

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A first comprehensive account of the experiments and experience in the United States in finding or making jobs for sanatorium "graduates."

MINIMUM STANDARDS FOR THE PREVENTION AND TREATMENT OF VENEREAL DISEASES IN CORRECTIONAL INSTITUTES, *by Emily Dunning Barringer, M.D., Walter M. Brunet, M.D., and Louis I. Chagrin M.D. National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor, 4 West 57 Street, New York City. Price 15 cents.*

A practical program to guide institutional policies in diagnosis and treatment.

WHAT IS MALNUTRITION? *By Lydia J. Roberts. Children's Bureau, U. S. Department of Labor. Single copies free on request.*

A revised edition of an earlier publication, including the newer knowledge of methods of recognizing and treating malnutrition in children, with bibliography.

THE PRESCHOOL SERVICE IN A GENERAL HEALTH PROGRAM. *East Harlem Nursing and Health Demonstration, 354 East 116 Street, New York City. Price 55 cents.*

The outgrowth of four and a half years' experience in homes, in medical and nursing conferences, and in mother and child classes.

THE RURAL HEALTH FACILITIES OF ROSS COUNTY, OHIO, *by C. E. Lively and P. G. Peck. Bulletin 412, Ohio Agricultural Experiment Station, Wooster, Ohio.*

The resources of a typical Ohio county for the prevention and cure of illness and the use made of them—in terms of visits, family expenditures, and so on.

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the extension of methods of cure which might be followed in combating leprosy everywhere. Contributions may be sent to General Samuel McRoberts, treasurer, Metropolitan Tower, New York City.

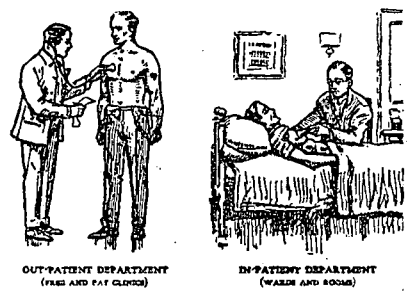
READ HEALTH! TALK IT! PRACTICE IT! exhorts a recent issue of the Municipal Reference Library Notes, issued by The New York Public Library, giving a classified bibliography of recent and valuable books on general health administration, child hygiene, sanitation, preventable diseases, statistics, food and nursing. Copies of the bulletin (Volume XIII, No. 42) may be obtained from the Municipal Reference Library at Room 512, Municipal Building, price 5 cents. All the works cited may be consulted there or may be withdrawn for circulation by city employes.

FOR THE BENEFIT of health officers, the editors of employe and industrial magazines, teachers of health education, and workers in the health field generally, the American Public Health Association has initiated a monthly syndicated health bulletin, with articles on timely topics in this field, and a regular nutrition page, a Bill Jones cartoon page, children's page and so on. Illustrations enliven a popularly written but scientific text. Subscribers may purchase the complete eight pages per month or single feature pages. For further information, address the association at 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City.

A VICTORY dinner recently celebrated the $1,000,000 endowment fund which the American Society for the Control of Cancer set out to raise in April, 1925, to defray its minimum running expenses. At the same time announcement was made of the results of the great two weeks' newspaper crusade early in the winter in which the society broadcast its educational message. The total number of newspapers known to have carried the daily bulletins sent out by the society during that period is 176, distributed in 34 states, from Massachusetts to California and Canada to Mexico, with an aggregate circulation not far from 10,000,000. The idea of the crusade was initiated by a group of representatives of New York daily newspapers, who offered to publish a series of short authoritative articles prepared by the society in conformity with their suggestions as to length, title, and other such details. Advance information supplied by the United States Census Bureau shows for 1925 the rise in the death-rates from cancer which have been characteristic of this disease in the past quarter century. In 1925 the crude death-rate per 100,000 of estimated population was 111.5, as compared with 109.8 in 1924; in 1920 it was 99.6, and in 1900, 64. Between 1920 and 1925 the rates for each sex below 45 years showed only slight changes, but for the older age periods there was an almost continuous increase, the greatest appearing for men of 75 years and over.

THAT despair of housewives and joy of laundrymen—the prevalence of smoke and dust in cities—is rapidly advancing from the state of being a nuisance which is nobody's business to active consideration as a factor in the public's health. The Health Commissioner of New York City, Dr. Louis I. Harris, has asked for a special fund of $300,000 to support a new division of smoke abatement, with a personnel of 100, apparently basing their plans on the estimate of O. P. Hood, chief of the technological branch of the United States Bureau of Mines, who finds that it requires $50,000 annually for each million of population to support such a service adequately. It is proposed that licenses issued by the Board of Health be required for the burning of fuel in dwellings, factories, apartment buildings and the like, and that standard devices be elaborated to measure smoke volume accurately so that it may be determined when any recalcitrant chimney is violating the law. Similar campaigns for smoke abatement have been undertaken in a number of other cities, including Chicago, Pittsburgh, and Rochester, N. Y. Dr. George W. Goler, health officer in Rochester, who has long been interested in this subject, announces as the result of actual test observations that in the central part of that city three tons of soot are deposited each day on each square mile of buildings, streets and luckless inhabitants. To arouse popular interest in this subject the Health Department placed two pairs of human lungs on exhibit outside its office—one pair of the normal pink of the country dweller; the other, those of a city dweller, of a mottled drab such as is so soon exhibited by the parlor curtains. Aside from the irritation by dust and particles which polluted air causes, it has an important effect in screening the rays of the sun from people who live beneath its pall. The United States Public Health Service reported recently that on a sunny morning in January, 1927, smoke shut out 42 per cent of the sunlight in lower Manhattan at 8 o'clock, and 18 per cent at noon. On foggy days the loss is much greater—while in the summer it is less: in June, for example, 33 per cent at 8 o'clock and 6 per cent at noon. "Sunlight," adds the report, "is of great interest and importance, since work in the office, shop, schoolroom or on the farm is performed under it; and the preservation of eyesight, the general health, and the prevention of accidents, throughout childhood and adult life, are largely dependent upon having plenty of sunlight both inside and outside the buildings in which we live and work."

OUT of the rich haul of six years' research the Committee on Dispensary Development of the New York United Hospital Fund is issuing a series of monographs illuminating in human terms the technique of clinic service; the cost and relationship of this service to the public, sick and well, and to the social agencies; and the lines of development which give most promise for the future (see The Survey, March 15, 1927, Health Centers for New York, by Michael M. Davis and Anna Mann Richardson, M.D.). Teamwork in medicine is the focus of the study, Group Clinics, by Walter C. Klotz, M.D., summarizing the methods and experience of fifteen outstanding examples in Michigan, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Illinois and Ohio. While the other studies are centered chiefly in the New York area, their findings are none the less significant for clinic workers and clients elsewhere. Medical Care for a Million People reports on the New York clinics and the work of the Committee on Dispensary Development, 1920-1926. An analysis of 200 cases of chronic illness in patients who still were able to be up and about forms the basis of the monograph, What Constitutes Adequate Medical Service? by Samuel Bradbury, M.D. In Human Factors in Clinic Management, Mary K. Taylor tells of results, successful and otherwise, in two clinics of the Out-Patient Department of Presbyterian Hospital, New York. Health Services in Clinics, by Anna Mann Richardson, M.D., suggests methods which are in use or might be used to help to keep people well—clients of social agencies, adults, boys and girls, and younger children. In A Medical Social Terminology, Gordon Hamilton makes a preliminary report on a study in classification and terminology for case work in hospitals and clinics. Better Doctoring—Less Dependency, by Louise Stevens Bryant, takes up an "area of conflict" in the 135,000 clients of social agencies who may be expected as patients in New York clinics during a year—an area in which it is estimated that the annual waste to the family agencies from unsatisfactory relations with the clinics is probably not less than $200,000. Copies of the monographs may be obtained on request from the Associated Out-Patient Clinics Committee, 244 Madison Avenue, New York City.



The up-to-date hospital cares for the vertical as well as the horizontal patient

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Teaching the Deaf to Hear

By HERMINIE NEUSTADTL

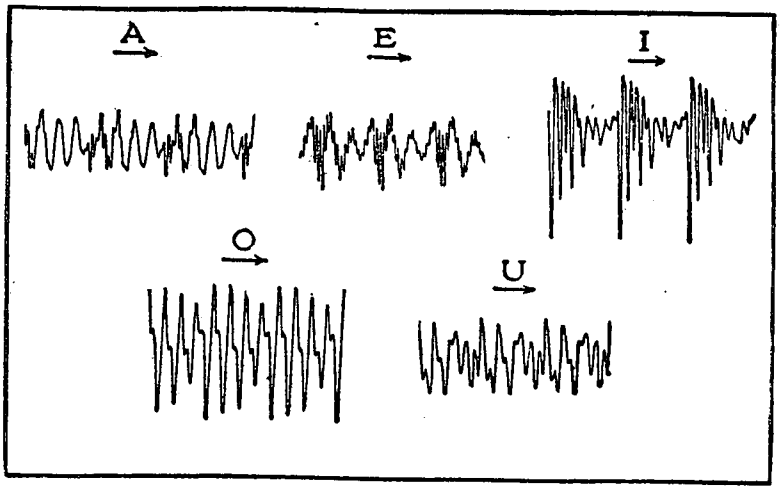
"WHEN the doctor told me my child was deaf, there arose before me a vision of the sign language; that, I thought, is what I shall have to learn in order to communicate with my own boy," she said to me.

That mother soon learned, however, that the finger-spelling "deaf mute" was the unfortunate child of yesteryear; that deaf children are "mute" only because they do not hear and so cannot acquire language by sound imitation as the hearing child does; that by the modern method of oral education of the deaf child her boy could be taught speech and lip-reading to enable him, with slight manifestation of his handicap, to take his place in the hearing and speaking world. She learned, too, that by the acoustic method which is in operation at Central Institute for the Deaf, at St. Louis, Mo., her deaf child with residual hearing could be transformed into a hard-of-hearing person—that his slight measure of hearing—which exists, it is estimated, in about 30 per cent of all children in institutions for the deaf—could be so stimulated, re-educated and developed as to give him serviceable hearing.

This modern miracle is being wrought daily at Central Institute, where thirty years of close observation and investigation by its founder and director, Dr. Max A. Goldstein, are being crystallized into a modern system of training the deaf child—creating a clearing-house for the deaf.

There I saw deaf children so well equipped with lip-reading and speech that they talked with me, easily, and with almost no sign of their infirmity. I saw deaf children of eleven and twelve years of age who had received all of this special preparation, giving recitations in academic work which would have done credit to hearing children of their ages in any school in the country. I heard deaf children recite with natural inflection in their voices.

In 1893 Dr. Goldstein, studying otology in Europe, became interested in research work on stimulation and re-education of the auditory nerve of congenitally deaf children, with a view to giving them serviceable hearing. Recognizing in this field of endeavor untold possibilities for improving the teaching of the deaf, he returned to this country imbued with the desire to give his ideas practical application.



Vowel sounds traced by the osiso, a device for making sounds visible. A deaf child can actually see his faults of speech, and correct them through use of his eyes

For many years he worked single-handed with such pupil material as came to him in his professional practice, testing the efficacy of the new ideas, battling on the one hand to educate the medical profession, the otologists of the country, in the problems of the deaf child, and on the other to raise the standard of the teacher material available for this most exacting form of pedagogy. He envisioned an institute "where there could be developed cooperation between the teacher of the deaf and the otologist, where new methods and new ideas applicable to the deaf would be tested out, where teachers with preliminary qualifications could be trained to the acme of understanding and efficiency in the various departments of the pedagogy of the deaf;" a school where the deaf-born child would be taught such fluency and comprehensibility of speech, such efficiency in lip-reading, that at high-school age he would be able to hold his own with normal hearing children in a hearing high school; a laboratory where the remnants of hearing of varying degrees possessed by a third of the children in institutions for the deaf, would, by a scientific method of acoustic education, be stimulated and developed. The stuff of that dream has been transmuted into the reality of Central Institute for the Deaf with its four departments:

The oral school for teaching speech and lip-reading to the deaf child;

The training school for teachers;

The department of adult lip-reading for those who have lost their hearing in later life;

The school for Correction of Speech Defects, a contribution which helped to take this endeavor out of the hands of commercial establishments and raised it to a dignified science.

Organized in the fall of 1914 with an enrollment of three pupils and two teachers, the institute's first home was space in an office building with accommodations for housing the teachers and pupils in a boarding-house across the street. Today, with its staff of 25 teachers and 150 pupils, Central Institute has outgrown its present fine building and annex, and plans are in progress for the erection of a group of new buildings, school and dormitory, a completely equipped reference library on the deaf, an auditorium and gym-

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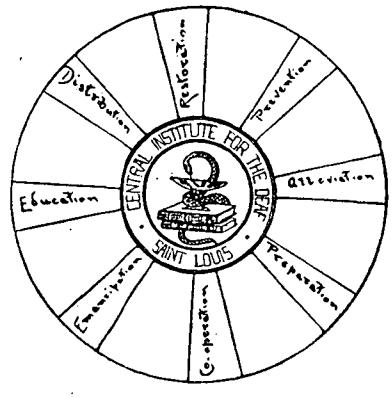
nasium, infirmary, research laboratories and a clinic for the prevention of deafness.

At the recent birthday party of the Central Institute, a large audience gasped and thrilled to the spectacle of deaf children who seemed not to be deaf. Deaf children, who gave so enjoyably the lilting verses of song, did not actually sing, but gave rather a recitation with pitch, accent and rhythm. This is accomplished by a carefully and gradually built up sense of rhythm. The child's finger-tips placed on the piano, chords are played, first strong, then weak, accented and unaccented, communicated through vibration to that sensitive touch-sense. The ability of these children to discriminate pitch, up to the point of the eight intervals of an octave, is also built up from the first day they enter the school through the sense of touch. Finger-tips on the piano, they are given first very low chords, then very high ones, which they are able to distinguish and so a relative change of pitch is established. The range of the speaking voice embraces only one octave, and when the children have gained an understanding of relative pitch, they are taught B flat below middle C with its octave, then its fifth, its third, until the eight intervals have been mastered.



To the person who has observed deaf children and is familiar with the thick, nasal, artificial "deaf" voice, the monotone, the lack of inflection and expression, and the garbled articulation, to say nothing of the facial contortions which so frequently accompany the effort at speech in the deaf child, the affirmation of good voices and clear, well-articulated and inflected speech will carry a tremendous significance. Whereas, by the old method deaf children received their earliest speech instruction in the form of speech elements and speech itself, at Central Institute there has been evolved a method by which the voice is trained prior to the teaching of speech. Central Institute starts children at the age of three. First comes the babble, "ubububub," "udududududud," "lalalalalala," with which the normal-hearing child commences the acquisition of a vocabulary. Subsequently, after good voice qualities have been started, syllables, then words, and sentences are given. The foundation of voice is first laid and upon this the superstructure of speech is firmly reared.

The acoustic method is the stimulation and education of the hearing and associated senses by the voice or any other sound-giving instrument. It includes the perception of voice and musical sound by the ear; the perception of pitch, rhythm, accent and volume through the sense of touch; the ability to analyze words and sentences by touch; and the analysis of sound waves projected visually so that the child may *see* his faulty articulation and correct it.

In cases which respond immediately to the voice, but can hear no language, drills on vowels, then consonants, syllables and words are systematically given; and finally a hearing vocabulary is built up and the distance range extended until a deaf child is transformed into a hard-of-hearing person. The least iota of residual hearing treated in this way, even when it is insufficient to be developed for conversational purposes, is invaluable for its naturalizing effect on the child's voice and for the release from complete isolation which the opening up of any hearing has been observed to effect in these children. When a child enters Central Institute, he is immediately "measured" on the audiometer, a machine combining the principles of the radio and the telephone, by which the quantity and type of residual hearing can be accurately determined. In the course of acoustic training, various devices are used.

To aid in the "analysis of speech sounds by tactile differentiation," there is a device by which totally deaf children translate sound vibration through their sense of touch, into spoken language. Speech is given into an ordinary megaphone, across the larger end of which is stretched a piece of paper as a vibrating diaphragm. With eyes closed, the child places the tips of the fingers on this diaphragm of paper and interprets, by the vibrations which he feels, some vowels, words and whole sentences, including change of pitch. At the birthday party, a demonstration was given of two totally deaf children, blindfolded, who interpreted language in this way, to the extent of whole sentences, answering questions and carrying out, correctly, commands suggested by a member of the audience.

Another new and remarkable device which science has produced to aid the cause of educating the deaf child is the "osiso," invented by J. W. Legg, research engineer of the Westinghouse Company, which makes sound visible and enables a child actually to *see* his faults in speech.

In almost any institution for the deaf, there can be found children who have as high as 30 to 40 per cent of hearing. By the acoustic method such children can be equipped with a hearing vocabulary which takes them out of the class of the deaf. Even when the residual hearing is very slight, its stimulation and development is immeasurably valuable in breaking down the barriers of the shut-out existence.

The Aged in Institutions

By RAYMOND CLAPP

THE number of dependent aged in public and private institutions averaged 147 per 100,000 population in 1924 in 18 cities which cooperated in the Study of Volume and Cost of Social Work, conducted for that year under the auspices of the Association of Community Chests and Councils (see Table 1). This ratio varied from 88 per 100,000 in Akron to 289 per 100,000 in Dayton, two Ohio cities of similar size, one having 3.3 times as large a ratio as the other. The three largest cities studied, Chicago, Detroit, and Cleveland, are found among the lowest third.

In seeking an explanation of the variation, it was found that in Akron 2.16 per cent of the population was aged 65 years or over in 1920 while in Dayton this figure was 4.64 per cent or more than double the Akron percentage (see Table 2). Here again the three large cities are in the lower third.

When the ratio of inmates under care is based upon the

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TABLE 1

Number of inmates of homes for aged, public and private, per 100,000 population, 1924

	Public	Private	Total
Dayton	168	121	289
Grand Rapids	118	153	271
Kansas City	154	92	246
Omaha	148	71	219
Buffalo	98	113	211
Rochester	83	122	205
St. Paul	79	125	204
Milwaukee	89	102	191
Duluth	100	82	182
Wilkes Barre	157	4	161
Toledo	77	68	145
Des Moines	76	63	139
Chicago	83	50	133
Minneapolis	19	87	106
Indianapolis	58	45	103
Detroit	81	20	101
Cleveland	43	58	101
Akron	88	—	88
AVERAGE	84	63	147

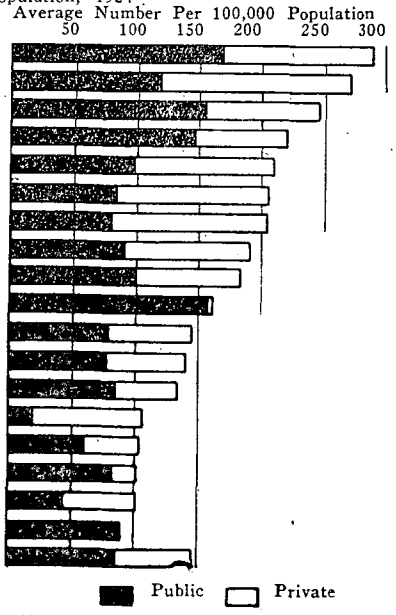


TABLE 2

Percentage of Total Population 65 Years and Over (Based on 1920 Census)

Grand Rapids	5.32%
Dayton	4.64
Des Moines	4.64
Indianapolis	4.64
Rochester	4.56
Kansas City	4.24
Toledo	4.19
Minneapolis	4.11
St. Paul	4.10
Milwaukee	3.90
Omaha	3.82
Buffalo	3.79
Wilkes Barre	3.57
Chicago	3.16
Cleveland	2.91
Duluth	2.90
Detroit	2.49
Akron	2.16
AVERAGE	3.46

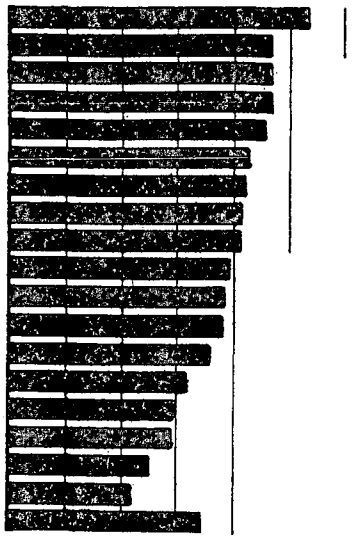


TABLE 3

Average Number Under Care Per 1,000 Population 65 Years of Age and Over

Rank Table 1	Public	Private	Total
9 Duluth	35	28	63
1 Dayton	36	26	62
3 Kansas City	36	22	58
4 Omaha	39	18	57
5 Buffalo	26	30	56
2 Grand Rapids	22	29	51
7 St. Paul	19	31	50
8 Milwaukee	23	26	49
6 Rochester	18	27	45
10 Wilkes Barre	44	1	45
13 Chicago	26	16	42
16 Detroit	33	8	41
18 Akron	41	—	41
17 Cleveland	15	20	35
11 Toledo	18	16	34
12 Des Moines	16	14	30
14 Minneapolis	5	21	26
15 Indianapolis	12	10	22
AVERAGE	24	18	42

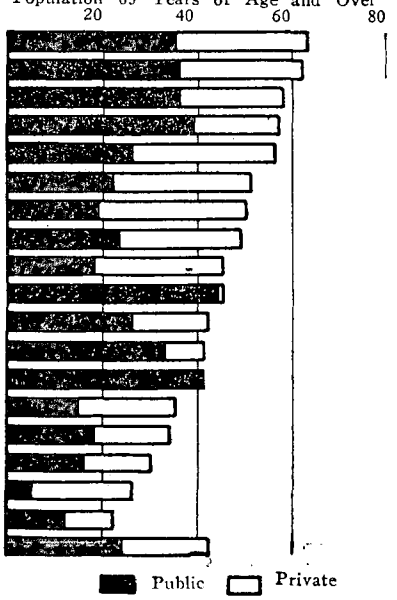


TABLE 4

Percentage Days' Care Given in Each

	Public	Private
Akron	100%	—
Wilkes Barre	97	3%
Detroit	80	20
Omaha	67	33
Kansas City	63	37
Chicago	62	38
Dayton	58	42
Indianapolis	56	44
Duluth	55	45
Des Moines	54	46
Toledo	53	47
Milwaukee	47	53
Buffalo	46	54
Grand Rapids	43	57
Cleveland	42	58
Rochester	40	60
St. Paul	39	61
Minneapolis	18	82
AVERAGE	57	43

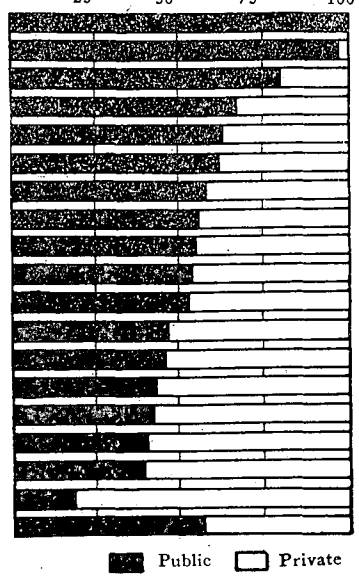
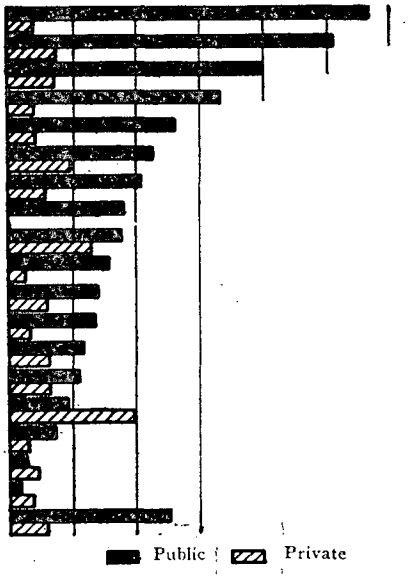


TABLE 5

Rate of turnover, found by dividing number received for care during year by average number under care.

	Public	Private
Omaha	281%	20%
Buffalo	253	37
Detroit	199	36
Rochester	166	20
Chicago	130	21
Duluth	113	48
Milwaukee	104	29
Akron	90	—
Grand Rapids	89	64
Cleveland	78	13
Wilkes Barre	69	30
Kansas City	67	17
St. Paul	58	31
Dayton	54	32
Minneapolis	47	99
Des Moines	36	15
Indianapolis	13	22
Toledo	9	18
AVERAGE	127	29



population 65 years or over (see Table 3), Dayton with 62 per 1,000 has only 50 per cent more than Akron with 41, and the ranking of several cities has changed materially. Duluth goes from ninth place to first, Akron and Cleveland from 18 and 17 to 13 and 14, and Detroit and Chicago move from the lower to the middle third. The spread is nearly as great, however, the Duluth ratio being 2.9 times that of Indianapolis.

Table 4 shows a wide variation in practice between the several cities as to division of the load between public or tax-supported, and private or contribution and endowment-supported, institutions, with the preponderance in favor of public care.

The fact that the public agencies have a much more transient population than the private is shown by Table 5. The difficulty in separating the aged from other inmates of the county home is a factor in the problem. Chronic invalids of the type customarily cared for in institutions for the aged are included in this tabulation.

No attempt, other than that in tables 2 and 3, has been made to explain these variations. The fact that we

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have no complete data as to the volume of non-institutional care of dependent aged in these cities, makes it unwise to attempt to draw any conclusions from the data here presented. In Cleveland, for instance, in addition to the 1,059 listed as inmates of institutions for the aged in 1924, there were approximately 400 receiving pensions from the Benjamin Rose Fund or equivalent relief from the Associated Charities, to enable them to live outside institutional walls. These two groups represented less than 9 per cent of the 17,000 Cleveland aged estimated as unable to be self-supporting.

Realizing the need for following up the leads suggested in tabulations such as this, a bureau has recently been set up at the University of Chicago, however, which is attempting to develop a continuing Registration of Social Statistics along the lines in which the Study of Volume and Cost of Social Work pioneered, and covering all social agency services in the fields of health, dependency, and delinquency.

This bureau is a joint project of the Association of Community Chests and Councils and the University of Chicago and, it is hoped, will have the means to develop the Registration of Social Statistics along lines similar to those followed by the registration of vital statistics and with results of corresponding importance to social work.

Indexes of Family Case Work Loads

By RALPH G. HURLIN

THE indexes here described are among the results obtained from the experimental collection of comparative family case work statistics which has been made by the Department of Statistics of the Russell Sage Foundation during the past two years. Before describing them and suggesting their possible usefulness, it may be well to state briefly, even at the risk of seeming very elementary, what we conceive a statistical index to be and what its limitations are.

It should be noted first that the term index is applied both to the device by means of which certain statistical measurements are made, and to the results obtained from its use. A certain series of index numbers is often called a barometer. In fact, it is the method by means of which the series of comparable numbers is obtained, which resembles the barometer, in that it, the method, is an instrument for measuring differences or changes in certain variable phenomena.

The barometer measures changes in atmospheric pressure. The index device measures differences in such variables as the level of prices, the level of living costs, the level of wages, the level of employment, the level of production, or the level of business activity. These are complex and elusive variables. They are not measurable either by the direct application of a scale or by a simple process of counting units. They are measured instead by combining, through some method of computation, the measures of component variables.

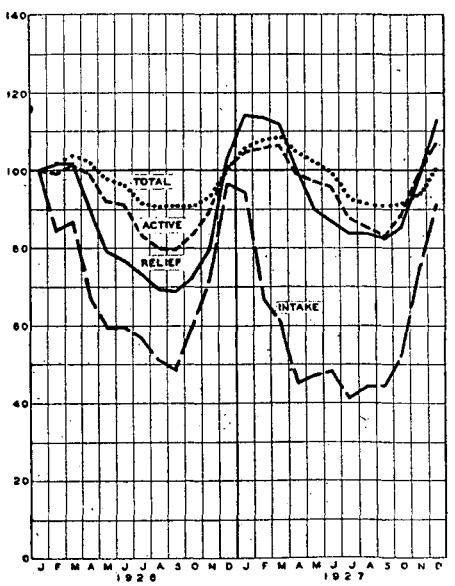

Chart I—Indexes of Total, Active, Relief and Intake Loads. January 1926 to December 1927

Measures of atmospheric pressure are read in degrees directly from the scale of the barometer. The readings of the index device are in terms of index numbers, which register the successive values or measures of the variable. Index numbers are in general considerably less accurate measures than are those which can be read from calibrated scales. But it should be said that there are in use both bad and good barometers, and that likewise some index methods are more precise than others.

Great accuracy cannot be claimed for these indexes of family case work loads. It is believed, however, that they register approximately the average changes in loads as they have occurred in this group of from 38 to 42 agencies reporting their current operations from month to month over these two years. The several curves are obtained not by adding up the counts of the several organizations, but by averaging the percentages of changes in loads from the previous month. Adding the loads of each of the organizations each month would give aggregates representing the entire load of the group of agencies, but changes in this aggregate from month to month would reflect primarily the changes of the few organizations with very large case loads. In obtaining each month the average percentage of change over the previous month, each organization is given equal effect on the index number, and since the median is the average used, an extremely large change in one or even in several agencies, does not affect the index number greatly.

In each of these indexes, January, 1926, is the base or 100 per cent, and the index rises or falls according to the average percentage of change for the group of agencies. For most of the months in the series, 42 percentages have been averaged. But for the last month, December, 1927, reports for only 28 agencies had been received when these diagrams were constructed.

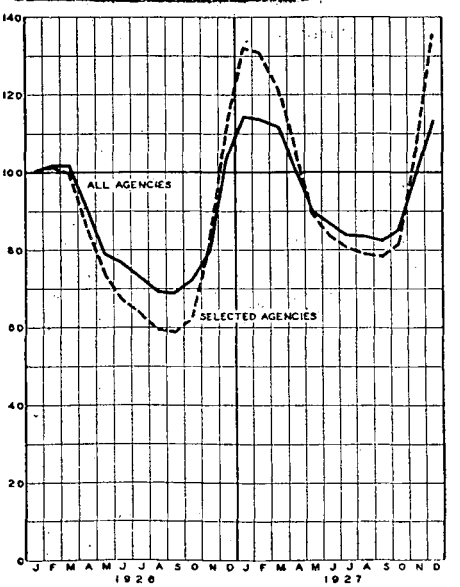

Chart II—Two Indexes of Relief Case Loads, January 1926 to December 1927

Chart I contains

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the curves of four indexes for the entire group of agencies. That showing least fluctuation is the index of total case loads. It includes both active and inactive cases, and does not truly represent the extent of fluctuation in the work of the agencies. The index of active case loads varies slightly more. It is at its lowest point in both years in September and highest in March. The index of relief case loads shows a still greater wave with a crest in January, February and March, and a deep trough in the summer months. The index of intake shows even greater fluctuation within the year. The low point is again in summer and the high point earlier in the winter.

These curves show interesting differences between the two years. From the evidence of the active case indexes, it appears that the winter of 1926-27 was more severe in its demands on these agencies than that of 1925-26, and that loads continued throughout 1927 to be greater than in the previous year. Apparently these indexes foretell a more severe winter in 1927-28 than that of 1926-27.

Chart II contains two indexes of relief case loads. The curve labeled All Agencies is the same as that shown in Chart I. The other is an index of relief cases for 23 selected agencies. From this smaller group have been omitted 19 agencies which show little fluctuation through the year or an irregular fluctuation. The result is that the index for the selected agencies, while it shows the same type of change as the other index, fluctuates with wider range. It is assumed that it may have greater significance as reflecting the changes in demand for relief upon such agencies.

In the interpretation of these indexes there is room for various opinions. They are, in fact, indexes of case loads in this particular group of some 40 family welfare agencies, scattered over the country from Seattle to Jacksonville to Boston. There is an implied assumption that this group of agencies may be representative of all similar agencies in the country. It might also be assumed that there is some relation between the fluctuations of these curves and the demand for this type of service.

It will be recalled that in the index of dependency which Dr. I. M. Rubinow constructed for the city of New York some ten years ago, he included among other series the case loads of the four leading family case work organizations in the city. It has been argued with respect to his index that the number of cases worked on by family welfare agencies may fluctuate less with the demand for their services than with their resources, and that, therefore, they cannot be interpreted as reflecting changes in dependency in the community. This is a point upon which we need further study and more evidence. We may point out here, however, that there seems to be some reason for assuming that the changes in the index of the relief case load of this group of well scattered agencies between the winters of 1926, 1927, and apparently 1928, do reflect changes in the demand for relief. This assumption is reinforced by the fact that they agree with related evidence which has been shown by the declining indexes of business conditions during the year 1927, which were at the end of the year, to quote the authors of one such index, at depression levels.

It is believed that these indexes may have real significance for interpreting social conditions. They are obviously in an experimental stage. Such value as they have should increase as the period for which they are available grows longer.

For Pan-American Children

By KATHARINE F. LENROOT

ON December 8 in the beautiful and hospitable city of Havana official delegates of fourteen American nations and representatives of smaller governmental units and private agencies assembled to discuss for six days the welfare of the children of the western hemisphere. This congress was the fifth such gathering to be held in a period of eleven years, the others having been in Argentina, Uruguay, Brazil and Chile. The sixth congress will be held in Lima, Peru, in 1929.

The Fifth Pan-American Child Congress was the first which could look to a permanent Pan-American Children's Bureau to serve as a center of research and a clearing house of information between congresses. The International American Institute for the Protection of Childhood, organized as a result of previous congresses, has been functioning in Montevideo since last July but is greatly in need of additional funds to enable it to perform the important tasks assigned to it.

The president of the congress was the distinguished Cuban pediatrician, Dr. Angel A. Aballí, professor in the University of Havana and director of a children's clinic. Among the sixteen other members of the most efficient and hospitable organizing committee, appointed by the Cuban Government and designated by the congress as its executive committee, were high officials, pediatricians and educators, many of whom were professors in the university.

Although the United States participated in previous congresses, this was the first to be attended by a large number of North American delegates. Included in the United States delegation were representatives of three federal bureaus, the State of Indiana, the Territory of Porto Rico, and ten private nation-wide organizations. Many of these organizations and several others contributed to the child welfare exhibit held in connection with the congress. The participation of so representative a delegation cannot fail to result in greatly increased cooperation between the children's workers of North America and of South America.

The majority of the delegates from Latin American countries were pediatricians, though lawyers and educators were also represented. Only the delegation from the United States included social workers, and public health nurses were not included in any of the official delegations. These two professions are in their infancy in Latin America, but the realization of the need for their development is keenly felt in many quarters.

The Congress was divided in six sections—medicine, hygiene, education, sociology, psychology and legislation. More than 100 papers in these fields were read and discussed. Among the resolutions of special interest to social workers passed by the congress were those favoring the unification and coordination of child welfare laws, outlining in some detail the organization of juvenile courts, favoring the investigation of paternity and the enforcement of parental responsibility, recommending the development of visiting teacher work, and urging that child-caring work be in the hands of specially trained persons. The *Concurso de maternidad,* an annual nation-wide contest in maternity and child care under the auspices of the government of Cuba, was this year held in connection with the congress.

The opening session of the congress was under the presi-

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dency of the secretary of state, Dr. Rafael Martínez Ortiz, who declared that it is as necessary to have a national policy of education as it is to have a national policy of international relations. "It can even be said that the second cannot be well-directed and positive if the first be entirely lacking." In his eloquent farewell address the director of the Pan-American office of the State Department, Dr. Nestor Carbonell, summarized the accomplishment of the congress and the value of such gatherings, not only to the cause of child welfare but also in the development of closer international friendship and understanding. "If these congresses had no other result than the friendship of Americans of various regions, they would be worth while for this reason alone," he said. "The times in which we live are not propitious for isolation, but for association . . . America some day will be one in justice, one in love, and one also in the conquests of progress and of civilization."

Increasing Intelligence

DIGGING below the battles which center about the use of the I. Q. as an unchangeable measurement of intellectual ability, Frank N. Freeman, professor of education at the University of Chicago, Karl J. Holzinger and Blythe Clayton Mitchell have elicited findings of great interest to social workers, parents and educators alike in a detailed study just published in the Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education on The Influence of Environment on the Intelligence, Achievement and Conduct of Foster Children. Professor Freeman and his associates took the records of 671 children who were or had been wards of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society and endeavored, broadly speaking, to find out how they had turned out and why. Elaborate series of correlations trace the achievements of children placed at different ages; of the differences in development of brothers and sisters, with the same heredity, placed in different types of homes; the difference in ability between a foster child and an own child in the same home with a common environment; the achievement in intelligence of the children of parents known to be mental defectives or delinquents, and so on. Finally these dependent children were compared with unselected groups of the same age in respect to intelligence, behavior, and progress in school.

It is obvious that most of these children had a bad start in life: four out of five of the legitimate group came from families in which one or both of the parents had been declared unfit by the Court, or had been committed to an asylum or penal institution, or had deserted. The death of a parent was seldom the sole cause of a child's dependency; in only ten of 160 families were both parents dead. Of the 141 illegitimate children, 104 had been committed voluntarily to the society by the mother as a protection to her reputation or because she felt herself unable to care for it; in 12 cases the mother had deserted the baby, and in 17 the court or social agencies had taken it from her because of her mental or moral unfitness.

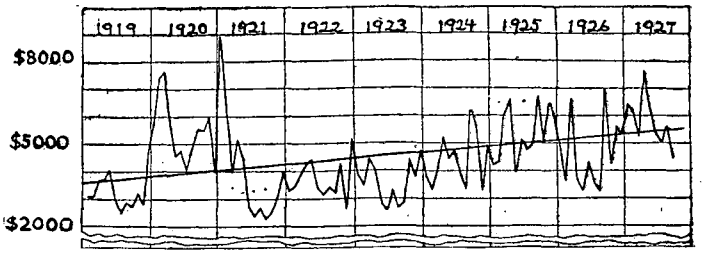
The foster homes and foster parents, carefully studied and analyzed, represented a much more favorable cultural, economic and educational level than the children's natural environment. And in that favorable environment, these children showed intelligence quotients practically the same as those of children in general, with no background of family inadequacy. In school progress they compared very favorably with the youthful populations of Dubuque, Rockford, Rochester, or Gary. Of the 401 children who had been placed in homes by the society, only 32 presented serious problems in behavior.

Most significant among Professor Freeman's findings was the fact that there was a distinct gain in intelligence as measured by the Stanford revision of the Binet-Simon tests and the International Group Test with the change in environment from the inferior own home to the superior foster home. The most rapid gain appeared shortly after placement. The children in the better foster homes gained more than did those in the poorer homes; children placed at an early age gained more than those adopted at a later age. "These facts indicate," declared Professor Freeman, "that an improvement in environment is associated with a gain in intelligence." Brothers and sisters reared in different foster homes were found to differ more in intelligence than siblings ordinarily do, and the sibling in the better home showed a distinctly higher I. Q. than those in the poorer, evidence again that "the character of the home affects the child's intelligence to a marked degree." Two unrelated children in the same home were found to resemble one another in intelligence—"a resemblance probably due for the most part to the similarity of environment." In the case of 26 children studied, both parents were rated as feeble-minded—yet only 4 of these children had an I. Q. below 70. The average I. Q. for the 26 was 81, distinctly lower than the mean I. Q. of the whole group in homes, which was 98.5, but very much higher than their heredity would give one to expect on Mendelian laws, indicating that both heredity and environment are influential factors in the development of intelligence.

Throughout the study the illegitimate children proved distinctly more able than the legitimate. On the basis of all available data, it seemed that they had a better heredity than the legitimate group, and they had a better chance in foster homes since they were placed at much earlier ages than were the children made dependent by the parents' later misfortune or delinquency.

A careful analysis made to ascertain whether the apparent effect of good home environment could be accounted for by a selection of initially bright children by the superior foster parents indicated that this could not be considered a major factor.

MONTHLY RELIEF Expenditures, General District Service, Boston, Mass., 1917-1927: "In addition to the high peaks in 1920 and 1921, periods of serious unemployment, there are also the seasonal high points due to the Passover and High Holidays. The few months when the aggregate demand for relief were low were more than offset by the steady increasing need for assistance. This is explainable mainly by unemployment, insufficient earnings and illness as well as by the growth of the Jewish population, a fairly-constant proportion of which is always in need of relief. The outlook for the next year at least is that the curve will retain its high level."—Federation Tidings. Published by the Federated Jewish Charity, Vol. I, No. 4.



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EDUCATION

A Geographical Adventure

By ROBERT G. BUZZARD

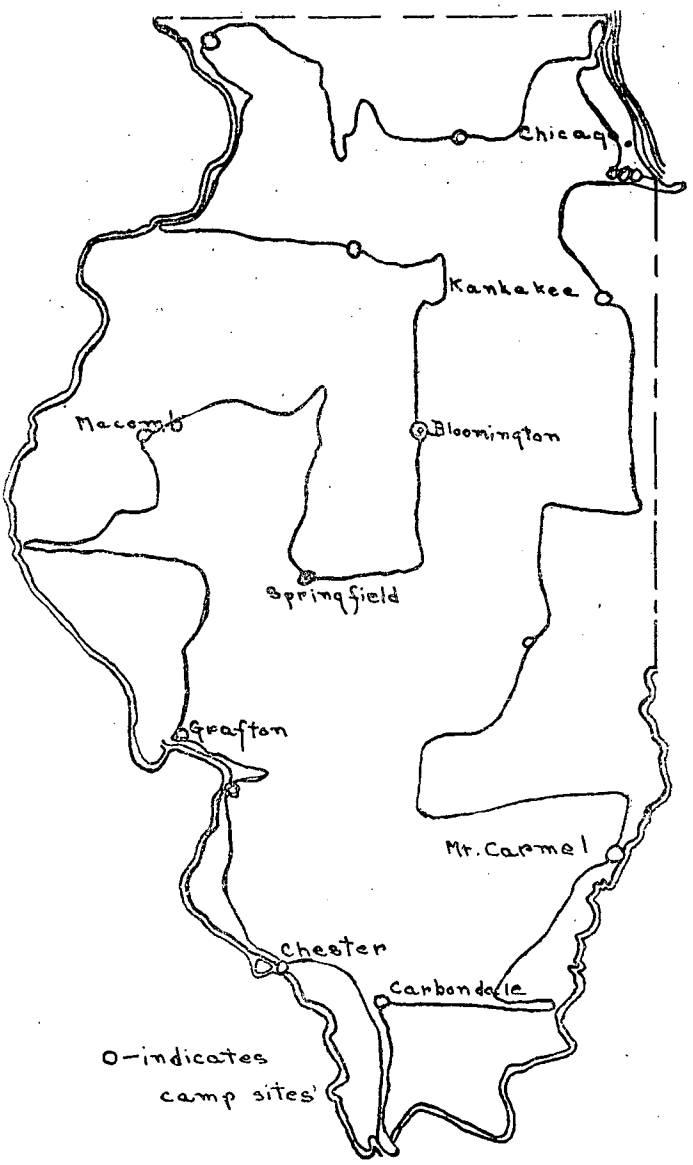
MY business is to teach those who are to become teachers in the public schools. My subject is geography—the discovery and the interpretation of the relationships between man and his physical environment. My institution is a state supported one. My raw material is a group of young men and women, fresh from the public high schools. My problem lies in acquainting these students with geography as an interpretative subject and in awakening in them the desire and the skill to present geography in the public schools with the reality which man's activities possess.

To practically all public school graduates geography is "a description of the earth as the home of man." The subject implies consideration of the world's political divisions, surface features, important rivers, cities, products, etc. Geography is the knowing of "what" and "where," and does not include the "why so found." There is no linking of geography with the home environment. No, indeed, geography deals mainly with lands away from us, and with the picturesque and queer things found within them. This is a kind of geography that accentuates differences between peoples instead of making clear why such differences occur. This geography develops "the strange thing" into "the queer thing," and therefore into "the inferior."

The "new" geography takes a markedly different view of the earth and of man. It emphasizes the relationship between environment and behavior as exemplified by man's work and his adjustments and helps the child see how variation in size and influence of political division, in resources and products, in stages of industrial and social development, and in national attitudes, rests in large part on natural causes. Those who would teach this kind of geography must be able to analyze how man lives in a given region through a study of the environment of that region, and must also know how to establish the habit of this kind of seeing and interpreting. Such study gives background for the analysis of all sorts of grave problems. It aids in formulating sane opinion when questions of regional differences arise. It will go far toward developing understanding between rural and urban communities, between industrial East and agricultural mid-West, between importer and exporter, between nationalities and between races.

When I began to fumble for the educational tools which would help me train geography teachers who had this outlook on their subject, I found myself asking: who tells the most convincing story about the people in any part of the world? Who knows best what the winter and summer seasons mean to the people of a region? Who speaks most adequately of the effect of transportation upon the production of a crop in any area? And I answered my own questions—the persons who have seen the peoples of the earth at home, who have lived among them, who have watched them adjust themselves to winter cold and summer heat, and vary their crop acreage as the cost of transportation changes, these persons are the group who speak convincingly because they speak out of their own knowledge.

From an educator's point of view then, "seeing geography" becomes the most desirable mode of preparing to "teach geography." Most of my students will teach geography to children in Illinois. Therefore, I reasoned, my teachers should know Illinois through having themselves seen it in the processes of making the geographical adjustments necessary for continued state development. Why not take my teachers to look at their state? Why not? And so I did.



The route of the first geographical adventurers through Illinois

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Two years ago an administrator of a teacher training institution was convinced of the saneness of such a scheme.

The summer school bulletin of this teacher training institution announced in the spring of 1926:

There will be a fifteen day travel study of the physiography, native vegetation, influence of climate, use of the land, transportation, mining, manufacturing, points of historical interest and cultural development of Illinois. Class will travel by motor-coach, carrying complete camping outfit and chef, and stop at automobile tourist camps. Leave the college on July 24, returning August 7. Route covers approximately 2,200 miles. Expenses about $130. Two major credits as electives in geography when a satisfactory written report is filed. Registration by mail. Correspondence invited.

The state was scrutinized for the things of geographic kind which could be studied in fifteen days, and with the state-improved highway map at hand, a tentative route for the study-trip laid out. Camping sites were chosen which afforded safe water supply and toilet facilities. Chambers of commerce were asked for data as to manufacturing plants of state-wide importance in their towns. Public utilities were asked for aid in discovering how their products were distributed and consumed within the state. Agricultural authorities were asked to speak to the group, explaining the relation of various crops to the economic adjustment of man.

A commercial motor-coach company devoted to camping tours provided motor-coach transportation, drivers and mechanic, complete camping outfit of tents, cots, mattresses, sheets, blankets, and pillows, and complete cooking equipment with a staff for cooking and camp preparation. No camp work was allotted to students except making camp beds and caring for personal luggage.

A daily schedule was planned that summed up the places to be visited. Study sheets were prepared for each day's work. Maps and books dealing with the geography of Illinois were provided. Correspondence with prospective students was carried on. Enrollments were taken.

AT 7:30 A. M., July 24, forty prospective teachers of geography, twenty-eight women and twelve men, a chaperon and two instructors, piled their allowed "one piece of baggage" on top of two motor-coaches and swung off on the Illinois highways, swung out into the living and breathing Illinois, the real Illinois, to acquire the background for teaching future citizens of the state the geography of that commonwealth, and the real geography of the world.

Ahead of this group of adventurers lay fourteen nights of sleeping under the stars, eating at the camp-sites and in the places Illinois provides for her travelers, visiting factories, mines and quarries, traveling the roads over which the state markets its products, talking with workers on the job and in their leisure hours. Road builder, sanitary engineer, factory manager and salesman, quarry man, stock buyer, real estate agent, public utility manager, oil refiner—the men who carry on the work of Illinois showed us man's adjustments to geographic conditions within the state. They amplified the reasons for divergence of opinion on state problems within the state, and showed us that these variations of opinion had under them the causal variation of geographic conditions. We felt man's adjustments to his environment as living processes, not as bookish theories.

AT 4:30 P. M., August 7, fifteen days after the start, forty prospective teachers of geography, took down their suitcases from the tops of the busses, and read the speedometer. It tabulated 2,317 miles—two thousand three hundred and seventeen miles of geography of Illinois.

When the September school-bell called, thirty-five of the young teachers took up their chosen work. Five of the group returned to the college campus for further professional study. All that winter the letters kept coming in, from those who joined with me in this experiment in teacher-training. "Geography is real to us this year," the letters said. "Our world is a real world, thanks to seeing what men everywhere do, think about, what they eat and wear, and at what they work." "I am teaching my geography class through Illinois, the part of the world in which they live and where most of them will spend their lives." To these thirty-five teachers in the public schools, geography begins at their very doorsteps—even the doorstep has geographic significance. These teachers are making geography in Illinois an interpretative study, a usable one. They are teaching geography, true, but more. They are making our adventure a project in developing conscious citizenship.

When the summer school bulletin for the following year was put in form, plans were rewritten. "Twenty days of field study" was substituted for the fifteen of 1926. Fifty-nine applicants petitioned for the twenty-seven seats available in the motor-bus, saying "Give us this opportunity for study, but in a bigger field; take us through eastern United States where geography helped to write national history." So eastward we went in the late summer, over the 2,971 miles of the round-trip between our Illinois town and Boston, Massachusetts.

The late summer of 1928 will find another group turning eastward, carrying forward an adventure of learning to teach geography, history and citizenship from first-hand study.

An Indian On Education

By M. N. CHATTERJEE

THE aim of this article is to consider education—with special reference to higher education—from the point of view of an Indian (Hindu) who is teaching in America.

In ancient times teaching was more or less a calling. A teacher was inspired, so to speak, to teach. His teaching was original. He dealt with fresh problems in his own way. He was not a partisan. He was not hired. He was self-appointed. He had something to offer. This was the nature and understanding of teaching and because of his calling the teacher was respected. His position in society was recognized. "The king of the country," says Yuan Chwang, "remitted the revenues of 100 villages for the endowment of the convent."

At present teaching is no longer a calling, even in India; it is a business. One teaches to earn a living. One learns to teach as an engineer learns to design a bridge. Such a teacher—a technician—is like to have very little of his own

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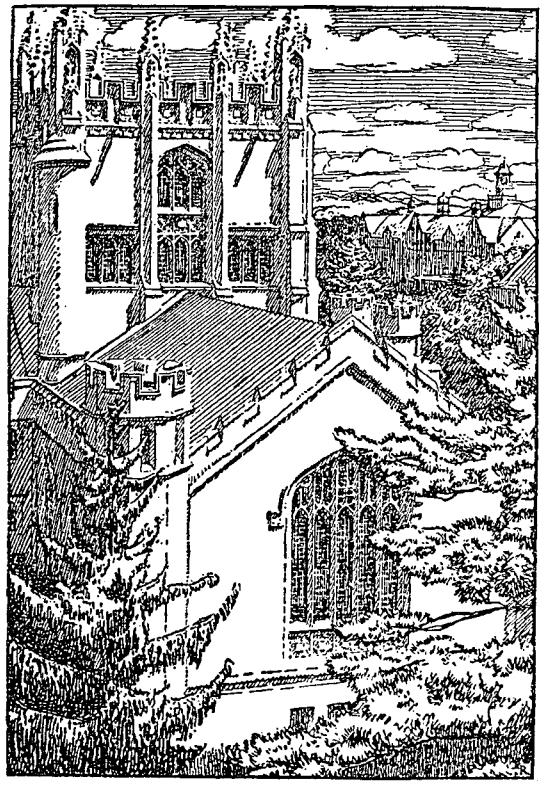


to give. Ninety per cent of what he has is borrowed and in many cases even a course of study is made for him to follow. In this respect he falls far below the rank of an actor on the stage, a Martin Harvey, a Babe Ruth, or even a Jack Dempsey.

As popularly understood in America, a good teacher is a good salesman. This explains the whole problem. He has something to sell but little to give. Teaching as understood in older days (eleventh century A. D.) was not selling. It was giving away. In the process of giving, the giver was growing in learning and understanding. He was not selling his wares for a crowded class room and popularity.

In ancient times the scholars did not come *en masse*. Again we read in Yuan Chwang that the university, comprising only 'schools of discussion,' was not meant for elementary instruction but for advanced studies and students. Only two or three out of ten could succeed in entering the university and its 'schools of discussion': the majority withdrew, beaten by the difficulties of the questions they had to answer before admision.

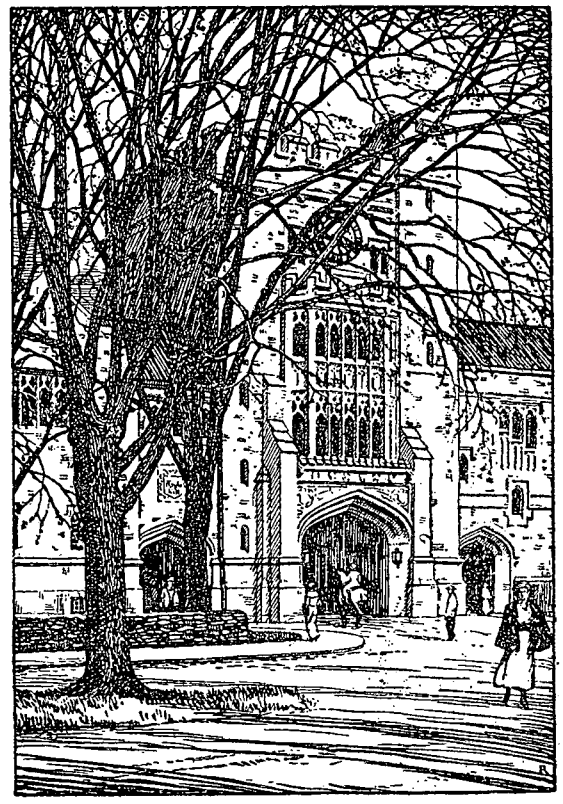
What is the situation now? We find students—an ever increasing number of them—planning to enter college who have as their major interest joining a fraternity, preserving that illusive thing called "college spirit," or playing on the football team.

THE prevalent idea is that a college degree means a larger earning capacity. Therefore it is the degree which is emphasized, rather than scholarship or discipline. It is very often the case that in ordinary conversation one can hardly distinguish a college graduate superintendent from one of his hod carriers. They speak the same language, hold the same outlook on life, and use their spare time in pretty much the same way. Is it not a fact that many alumni associations will sooner find money to support a winning football team than to secure the wherewithal for a science building? In a democracy there is no recognition of an aristocracy of intellect. All men are created equal. Every one then should have common treatment. The effect of this doctrine is far reaching. It makes the standard of education so low that higher education as such becomes only a name; also, the student of superior intelligence wastes his time scoring A grades without having to work for them. Teachers to fit into this system must necessarily be good salesmen, past masters in the language of the herd, well able to dilute their subject matter with jovial entertainment.

Of course, there are many great teachers who are not in the profession primarily to earn a living. Most of them are, however, handicapped by the existing dole system of education, the quantitative basis of measuring educational values; and the expectation of quick tangible results (in vocational fields) by students, administrators and society. This may be why many brilliant students prefer selling bonds to teaching.

THE current belief is that any one with a higher degree is capable of holding a teaching position. Degrees are important, but it does seem that a distinction should be made between a teacher and a research worker. A teacher must, of course, be familiar with the trends of modern research, but he is a coordinating agent; he looks for synthesis. A research worker is satisfied as long as he knows an increasing amount about an increasingly small particle. It is not enough for a teacher to be acquainted with his own special subject; he must also recognize that his subject is only a part of a much greater whole. The difference in attitude is profoundly important. On the one hand we have a master of technique, while on the other we have a master of knowing and understanding. It is well to study the details of the mercantile system, but for a teacher it is essential to understand the economic unity of the world. Thus, it seems essential that in institutions of higher education there should be means for a prospective teacher to become familiar with various broad fields of learning in preference to minute details of one phase of one problem.

It does not seem reasonable that one should attempt to teach history without reference, say, to Copernicus, Keplar, Darwin, Lyell, Mendel, and a host of other great scholars whose insight has changed the course of history, but how many books even refer to these makers of history? Research in history means the study of a certain period in minute detail, investigating and verifying data from contemporary material. This is important, but for a person who is going to teach, its value seems to



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have been greatly over-valued and over-emphasized.

It is easy enough to drill students and make them memorize that $a + a = 2a$, and $x + 2x = 3x$, or to show them the rule for solving the equation $x \div 2 = 2$. This technique is important, but we should bear in mind that so far as mathematical processes go, a computing machine is more accurate, more dependable, and less expensive than any human being however competent he may be. It is not the rule for calculation which makes algebra so valuable; its real significance lies in its discipline and in its concept of "infinity."

THE relation between teacher and employer should be one of comradeship. It seems to me the tendency toward increasing administrative control by superintendents and presidents who act as business managers, is detrimental to effective work in teaching and to the purpose of education. Repression and coercion are not compatible with the growth of free thinking. Furthermore, there is very little in common between such wholly different types as the purely administrative officer and the teacher. If an administrative officer is not at the same time a scholar and a teacher, he is likely to create an atmosphere which fails to encourage habits of scholarship and thinking.

This habit of thinking does not fall from heaven. It has to be created and trained. It is more likely to grow in a suitable environment. Surely the real function of a teacher is to help to create such an atmosphere. Teachers who are mere technicians are not likely to understand the value of an atmosphere. Where the coach is the model of scholarship and discipline and where recitation from text books, pampering, browbeating, etc., are in vogue, there is little chance of establishing any relation between the faculty and student groups which would be to the benefit of either. The relation should be that of friends and comrades whose interests are the same, who are working for a common purpose, only one is older and more experienced than the other. This friendship is not of a superficial type, but based on genuine mutual respect. In this regard we have not improved upon the ancient idea of a university where "the teachers and students were exponents and followers of different sects or schools of thought and were always meeting in animated debates and discussions which so largely made up the intellectual life of the university, which stood for the ideal of freedom in learning and welcomed knowledge from all quarters, from all sects and creeds."

THE teacher should have facilities to meet students and work with them. Discussions of topics of interest, of books read, of goals in mind, of wild ideas and utopias; playing together in games which call forth fair play and control over temper and tongue—thus can mutual respect be engendered. A common meeting place apart from the class room seems to be essential. The teacher's own private library ought to be the most fascinating of places for such a purpose. The restraint of a public library is absent and yet teacher and pupil meet among books which are friendly and stimulating. Unfortunately, teachers are notoriously underpaid and in this land books are considered luxuries. They are even taxed!

There are scores of teachers of the type mentioned above as there are many students who are willing to march forward in search of a common quest, comrades together, not fumbling and crouching, but with "the mind that is without fear and the head that is held high, not in insolence, but because of clear reason that has not lost its way into the dreary desert sand of dead habit." It seems to me that western education needs to be liberated—from the public's naive credulities and unwarranted demands of success; from the production managers' conception of education represented by grades; from the whims and caprices of immature students, and finally from the self complacent and highly expert pedagogs. It will have to be placed in the open, so that the encaged minds of capable and willing students differing widely and radically in doctrines and practices may freely come in contact with educators, not merely for the purpose of attending lectures but for "pondering, urging objections, raising doubts, resolving them, giving etymologies, disputing, studying, and explaining." Truth should be sought from every conceivable viewpoint. "As it was in the beginning, is and ever shall be"—may be true of heaven, but for man and his civilization the imperatives are sound knowledge, creative and constructive thinking and enriching human contacts. These should be the real concerns of education.

A Campus in Conflict

By JOSEPH K. HART

THEY opened the meeting with prayer. The place was Louisville, Kentucky, and the day was March 29, 1927. There had been trouble at the University of Louisville, a municipal institution. A member of the faculty had been "arbitrarily" dismissed; and the faculty had countered by demanding that the president, George B. Colvin, a new man in the position, should resign. The board of trustees had intervened, and had invited representatives of the various faculties to present their grievances at a conference. One of the trustees presided at this conference. He exhibited the good intent of the trustees by offering prayer, and he made a speech: he pointed out that the board was made up of men who had been successful in their private careers, who were disinterested, and who wanted to find out the truth, the whole truth, and nothing but the truth.

The conference held several sessions, concluding on April 12. Testimony was taken. Stenographic reports of this testimony fill 566 pages. The presiding officer stated that this testimony was taken in an effort to get at the facts. But—

The board by formal ruling denied the faculty the privilege of putting questions directly to the board.

The board ruled out of order the faculty request that it be allowed to present a resolution concerning the causes of trouble in the school.

The board promised that at some time during the "conference" all parties should be given opportunity to make suggestions as to remedies for the existent situation, but this opportunity was never offered and the board later denied that it had ever made such a promise.

The people of Louisville had taken a hand in the trouble, too. A Citizens' Committee had formulated a series of charges against the president and his administrative policies. They charged him with:

Illegal alteration of the government of the university.

Arbitrary and hasty adoption of policies.

Misrepresentation of the board to the faculty and *vice versa*.

Violation of academic ethics, reversal of action of deans,

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disregard of recommendations of heads of departments.
Favoritism on behalf of his own son and daughter.
An attempt to create a vacancy in the department of history in order that he might appoint a personal friend to the position—

and so on through as many more specifications.

On May 26, 1927, the board of trustees made public certain final conclusions about the situation. It reiterated its promise that no one would be penalized for anything said during the conferences; but it also declared that the decisions of the board must be "loyally accepted" by every member of the faculty who desired to remain in the institution, and that it would tolerate no prolongation of the controversy. In view of this attitude, the faculty appealed to the American Association of University Professors for an investigation of the whole tangled problem, and on June 12 a committee of the association arrived in Louisville and went to work.

The committee spent five days interviewing persons intimately acquainted with the facts, and still more time in digesting the volumes of accumulated evidence. Having given heed to all the material facts and arguments available, the committee, in the bulletin of the A.A.U.P., sets forth its own matured findings and conclusions. These findings, covering some fifteen pages of the bulletin, obviously cannot be given in full here. A summary and some excerpts must suffice—though any one who wants reassurance as to the quality of university life today should read the whole report.

The committee finds that the president, though "undeniably a man of great ability," had, upon coming to this new position, so handled matters as to make his own work almost futile. In dealing with questions of educational policy he "had acted with a degree of haste which was by itself sufficient to ruin the chances of success of any policy set before the faculty." The committee finds that on certain occasions "President Colvin misrepresented to the board the quality and performance of the faculties; and by these means he prepared the minds of the board to support him when he proposed drastic changes in personnel and method." "President Colvin's dealings with the various members of the history department constitute a strange record." "It is the opinion of the committee that the president's persecutions of the members of the department of history deserve a place in the annals of administrative error for their audacity and lack of justification."

The committee finds that the board of trustees, though composed of men of proved ability, did during the academic year 1926-27, allow itself "to act precipitately and to commit a number of serious administrative errors." For example, during the conferences between the board and the faculties, the board had opportunity to acquire full information as to what was wrong in the university. "The board did not avail itself of this opportunity." "The board, instead of providing a remedy for existing evils, has increased those evils." "The board refers with emphasis to the fact that the law vests in it the authority and places upon it the responsibility for decisions in controversies of this kind. That is undoubtedly true. The board proceeds to say that 'its decision must be final.' That is undoubtedly correct within the bounds of the board's legal power. In view, however, of the disturbed state of opinion in Louisville the board might well be reminded that its legal power cannot force public opinion to accept a decision which is regarded by many as contrary to the facts and the evidence. . . . The possession of such power never does exonerate, and never will exonerate, its possessor from the supreme moral obligation of rendering a decision in accordance with justice!"

A COMPREHENSIVE study of educational legislation in 1927, including laws passed and laws proposed, but which failed to pass, is contained in the latest bulletin of the National League of Teachers' Associations. The information was compiled by the organization's legislative committee, and it is presented in outline form to show clearly and quickly for each state, the kind of bills introduced, by whom proposed, teacher activity in relation to the bill, whether there were paid workers for it and if so, their salaries and status, nature of legislative work, passed or failed, reasons for passage or failure, publicity methods used, and the recommendations of the committee which made the study.

EDUCATION as "a profession for college graduates" is the subject of a recent pamphlet, published by the graduate school of education of Harvard University, giving as background a picture of "schoolmastering a century ago" and continuing with a description of the preparation for teaching today as well as a discussion of various fields of work for educators. The study includes brief consideration of "the teacher as educator," "the status of the educational expert," and Harvard's new program for candidates for the master's degree in education and the Harvard apprenticeship plan for teachers in training.

THE COMMUNITY CHEST principle has been used in raising funds for college philanthropies at Miami University (Oxford, Ohio) recently, with marked success. Ninety-seven per cent of the women students, 96 per cent of the men, and 86 per cent of the faculty responded to a well-organized community drive and in two days their pledges exceeded the goal of $6,250 by $165. The Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A. and other organizations to which the college contributes are thereby assured of substantial support, and the campus is relieved of the successive special drives, tag days, subscription dances, bazars and "entertainments" by which the various organizations formerly sought to raise their quotas.

THE PROGRESS of attempts to prevent by law the teaching of the doctrine of evolution in state-supported institutions in this country is outlined in the report of Committee of the American Association of University Professors, presented in the current issue of the organization's Bulletin. The report states that the movement began in Oklahoma in 1923, "when a clause was introduced into the free text-book law which forbade the use of any book in the public schools teaching 'the Darwin theory of creation versus the Bible theory of creation.'" This was repealed in 1925. Since then, measures of similar import have been passed in Florida, Texas, Tennessee and Mississippi. Anti-evolution bills have been defeated by legislative vote or in committee in Arkansas, Oklahoma, Missouri, West Virginia, Georgia, Alabama, North and South Carolina, Minnesota, and California. The report points out that "The real driving force back of the anti-evolution crusade is of course religious intolerance. A large and determined body of individuals have deliberately set out to have their own religious dogmas protected by law. . . . The real object is the practical establishment of a state church founded on a reactionary form of fundamentalist Christianity which is unacceptable alike to men of science and to liberal-minded members of orthodox denominations."

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"Industrially Redeemable"

By EMILY BURR

Drawings by S. H. Wainright, Jr.

WHEN Edith came to the Vocational Adjustment Bureau seeking a job she wore three different colored smocks, each one showing a few inches below the other. She explained that she had made them herself, as well as the small hat which was perched cockily upon her frowsy head. Edith talked volubly in a strident voice about the ill-treatment she received at home and of her failure to get along with people. She wept as she told us how she wanted people to like her, "But nobody ever does!" She was especially hurt by her mother's criticism of her inability to find work. "I just will be crazy if I don't show them soon that I am somebody!"

Edith's appearance suggested a Wild Woman escaped from a side show. In her present guise she could not obtain work. Her marked emotional instability, her queer garb, her loud and incessant chatter would prevent her winning so much as an interview.

The Vocational Adjustment Bureau is a non-sectarian social service organization in New York City, engaged in the study and placement of maladjusted girls. Although its staff is accustomed to the emotional outbreaks of neurotic girls, Edith's demonstration aroused sympathetic interest and a desire for some form of constructive action. Edith needed to be taught a trade. She needed to learn to work quietly. Her morale needed to be stiffened. Criticism and unkindness made her condition worse. She needed commendation and encouragement rather, and wise direction.

Something must be done not only for Edith, but for Mary who had been discharged over and over again because of tardiness; for Irene, who had had twenty-seven jobs in the last seven months; for Louise, who was so nervous and impertinent that she never could keep a position; for Helen, who was always depressed and tearful; for Sadie, who was just out of the State Hospital and felt unequal to the strain of a full working day; for Amy, who had attempted suicide and needed cheerful surroundings and tasks graded to suit her limited capacity. Each girl in this group wanted to be a wage-earner. But first each of them required a period of re-education. The sense of inferiority, already deeply rooted in several of them, would be still further implanted if they experienced continued failure. Their social inadequacy must not again be demonstrated. They must have the stimulus of successful accomplishment —that panacea for the down-hearted.

The industrial experiment undertaken by the Vocational Adjustment Bureau—the VAB workroom—was an attempt to work out a solution for such problems. It started in November, 1925, with eleven girls and women. This year thirty-two are registered. Two of these are from the Children's Court, eight from city hospitals, three are state hospital cases, and the rest have come from social agencies, neurological clinics and from psychiatrists. The types of disorders include sleeping sickness, compulsion neuroses, hysterias, excited and depressed states and emotional instability. Each girl accepted must be industrially redeemable. The hours of the workshop are from nine to five, arranged to suit individual needs. Usually the girl begins by coming only three hours, or even less. The wages depend on output. All are initially paid $4.50 a week, at an hourly rate. The workroom is not a sheltered shop, in the usual sense of the phrase, but a chance for temporary employment for those who are nervously disabled.

THE girls learn to sew, to do simple embroidery, to make boxes, to do pasting, to dress dolls, and carry on other hand processes. But to establish habits of punctuality, self-confidence and ability to get along with other people is considered by the director and her assistants more vital than acquiring any of the trades taught at the workroom. The experimental character of the workroom is never forgotten. New methods are frequently tried out, which include new types of work as well as different ways of treating temper tantrums, inferiority complexes, anti-social attitudes and other behavior difficulties.

Conditions approximating as nearly as possible those that exist in the highest type of industrial concerns are maintained in the big, sunny workroom, except that all idea of

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speeding up and all sense of pressure are eliminated. The director gauges the stamina and the manual dexterity of each worker, who is taught to improve her own record instead of comparing her work with that of others.

At first work was secured from factories. This, however, was paid on a piece basis and the plan was soon abandoned as impractical and not sufficiently remunerative for girls of this type. Measured by the output of normal workers, they were unable to earn the $4.50 minimum wage paid them. It was found, however, that stringing beads, making lampshades and fashioning silk tassels were within the capacity of most of these psycho-neurotic cases, provided sufficient time and enough supervision were expended in the operation.

Gradually the production of articles of more or less artistic character was introduced. Waste paper baskets, cigarette boxes, decorated utility and vanity boxes, velvet-covered slipper trees and dress hangers, slipper-bag dolls and boudoir dolls can be made leisurely and well by our girls. Orders for these products have been obtained on a strictly quality basis from many of the large department stores. Their sale is helping maintain the workroom. The very definite therapeutic value to the girls of the knowledge that goods made by them are salable is not to be overlooked. Mary said, "It is a pleasure to go into the best stores in the city and stand and look at the things you've helped make!" This remark by a girl who came to the workroom utterly discouraged was the first indication that her outlook on life was turning toward normal.

Tilly was a highly sensitive woman of thirty who had failed to fit into the social life of either of the small cities in which she used to live. New York she found even more difficult. Her failure to make good in two positions increased her sense of social inadequacy, and convinced her that she would always be a misfit. The psychiatrist who was analyzing her suggested that she be given more and more exacting tasks and finally be allowed to resume her previous vocation, bookkeeping. The progressive steps in the types of work were of keen interest to her and when, after some weeks, she was permitted to help in keeping the workroom accounts, her courage looked up. When the workroom closed for the summer, Tilly was placed as companion to a blind woman. Her sense of importance in guiding this helpless person and her ability to render acceptable service further built up her self-esteem. Tilly kept her employer's accounts, attended to her correspondence and engineered her daily outings. She felt she had an executive position, flavored with the satisfactions of a social worker. This fall she was able to undertake the management of a doctor's office. Here she gets the variety of tasks which most psycho-neurotics require. She is earning a very fair salary. Part of her work is to demonstrate to mothers the preparation of certain food formulas. In this she is again the one in authority. The devastating sense of inferiority under which Tilly struggled for so long has been largely overcome through the adjustment to work that was within her capacity.

THE workroom day is organized with a forty-five minute lunch period at noon, intermissions of ten minutes during the morning and afternoon and fifteen minutes for music, dancing and games at the close of the day. These short recesses have been found to increase the spirit of friendliness and good will as well as the quality and quantity of work done. Anti-social attitudes have broken down under the tonic moments of relaxation. Self-government has been successfully instituted, many of the most troublesome behavior cases becoming exceptionally helpful under responsibility and the acquirement of a new standard of values.

Frances, a young woman of twenty-five, had been coming to the workroom for ten months. Twice a week she was excused to go to the clinic. Frances' troubles began two years ago when she created so much disturbance during a quarrel with a younger sister of whom she is jealous that she was sent to a psychopathic ward for observation. At the end of the third week she was discharged. A few months later, the sister married and left home. Frances was then the center of her mother's attention, she resumed her position as forelady in a factory and all went well until, through her inability to get on with some of her fellow-workers, she was discharged. She drifted from one job to another, becoming steadily more nervous and quarrelsome. The younger

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sister, now widowed, returned home with her baby. Frances was forced to share her room with them. The sister irritated her and the child disturbed her with its crying. She again became excited and abusive and was once more placed in the psychopathic ward for observation. In the quiet hospital surroundings she made a fair recovery, was discharged and sent to the workroom.

Frances' supercilious, critical attitude, especially toward the director, has been the cause of some incipient quarrels. At first she worked very slowly, saying that any effort exhausted her. Occasionally she would shout, "I'd be better off dead, only I'm a coward and don't dare jump!" These speeches were made only when she had an audience.

Twice during the last month Frances has left the workroom, declaring she was going to get a job as forelady, and each time she has returned, reporting dismissal because of tardiness. After each of these experiences she has been more cooperative. The workroom parties have done much to stimulate her. As a member of the refreshment committee she was eager to do her share in the preparations, and she joined in the dancing with no show of snobbishness. When her bad behavior was at its worst she was asked to serve on the Self-Government Committee. The reasons for having such a committee and the ways in which she could help bring about a genial atmosphere were pointed out to her. She listened attentively and became an ardent supporter of peace and quiet. The fact that she was learning a trade has given her a new self-respect. But being one of a group and having a definite function to perform for the welfare of that group has given her a real grip on herself.

At first Edith, who really began it all, seemed an insoluble problem. Her talking was almost unbearable. Each morning she came in with a new tale of the woeful experiences of the previous evening at home. Then there began to be a new note in her talk. She had handed her mother four dollars which she had earned, her first contribution to the family budget. "The family is beginning to respect me," she said. She worked day after day stringing beads, the work varied only by sorting the beads and counting out the proper number. Edith was of the type that rejoices in monotony. A change in occupation upset her, even to the point of causing a nervous outbreak. She was not flexible, could not adjust to new conditions. She wanted to perfect herself in some one thing, and so "have a trade."

It was soon discovered that though Edith liked monotony, she must have work that was soon finished, for a task that consisted of several operations irritated her. One day during this experimental period she was shown how to use a sewing machine. This was not an entirely new undertaking for her, since she had sometimes used her mother's machine, but her inability to do neat work was obvious in the smocks she had shown us with such pride. Instead of pointing out to her that she had done wretched machine operating, she was told that since she already had some knowledge of the work she could by practice improve her speed and produce excellent stitching. She was given short seams to stitch on strong material like cretonne for small bags. The pretty colors caught her fancy. The work so engrossed her attention that she forgot her troubles. Her talking ceased during the work period. At recess her chatter could be heard above that of all the others, but it had lost the gloomy note. She now accentuated her accomplishment, her newly found trade and the more considerate attitude of her family.

All this happened many months ago. Edith has been at work as a machine operator for nearly a year. She has left home and is living with a family where she has board and room in exchange for the evening care of two babies. "I'm on easy street now," she says, "actually saving money." She is less nervous, not only because she has work that she likes and can do, but also because she has been able to leave the family group in which she was an ugly duckling and become independent.

From the nature of the problems they present, these neuropsychotic workers will always be difficult to diagnose as well as to treat. Methods can never be as definite, probably, as they are in handling patients in some other branches of medical practice. Yet, even in this brief, limited and specialized experiment, we have found points which have general application. Habits of punctuality may be established through hourly pay, and through signing each individual when she arrives and when she leaves—two means of giving a greater appreciation of the value of time. A girl with hysteria (no organic disorder) is often helped through a task which is so great a demand upon her attention and interest that she must be less introspective.

The workroom experiment clearly indicates, however, that absolute rules are of relatively little value in helping cases of maladjustment. But if Edith and Tilly and Frances and Mary, after being studied as individuals, can be given suitable work under group conditions, they can in time fit themselves for a life of usefulness as trained, self-supporting wage-earners.

Six Killed, Twenty Wounded

A Case Study of Industrial Conflict

By ERWIN F. MEYER

FOR over three weeks miners in Colorado had been on strike. In the northern Colorado field, located in Weld and Boulder Counties, the strikers had been successful in shutting down all the mines with the exception of those operated by miner-owners and the Columbine Mine owned by the Rocky Mountain Fuel Company. This latter mine was the scene of the killing of six persons and wounding of about twenty more in one of the crises of a long-drawn industrial war.

Every day with the exception of Sundays it had been the custom of the strikers and their sympathizers to gather at the outer gates of this enclosed property. Frequently, this crowd marched through the mine grounds and held demonstrations. These parades, which were truly picketing demonstrations, were usually held early in the morning when the miners were changing shift. The size of the crowds that had been in the habit of meeting and marching varied from two hundred to six hundred persons. They had

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been orderly, singing bands. So testified those National Guard Officers who had witnessed these parades and demonstrations. Even the mine superintendent had admitted that he had been able to control the crowd by "letting them do what they wanted." No property had been destroyed nor had there been violence of any sort with one possible exception. One day a working miner was seized and dragged into the crowd of the strikers. He was rescued by deputy sheriffs. This was classified as an individual breach.

To understand the shooting one must remember that the mine property has three fenced enclosures. The third or inner enclosure which surrounds the air shaft and tipple as well as the central administrative offices of the company is of barbed wire, electrically charged. The second enclosure surrounds the miners' homes, church, mess-hall, school, general store and post office. The outer fence runs around the general property.

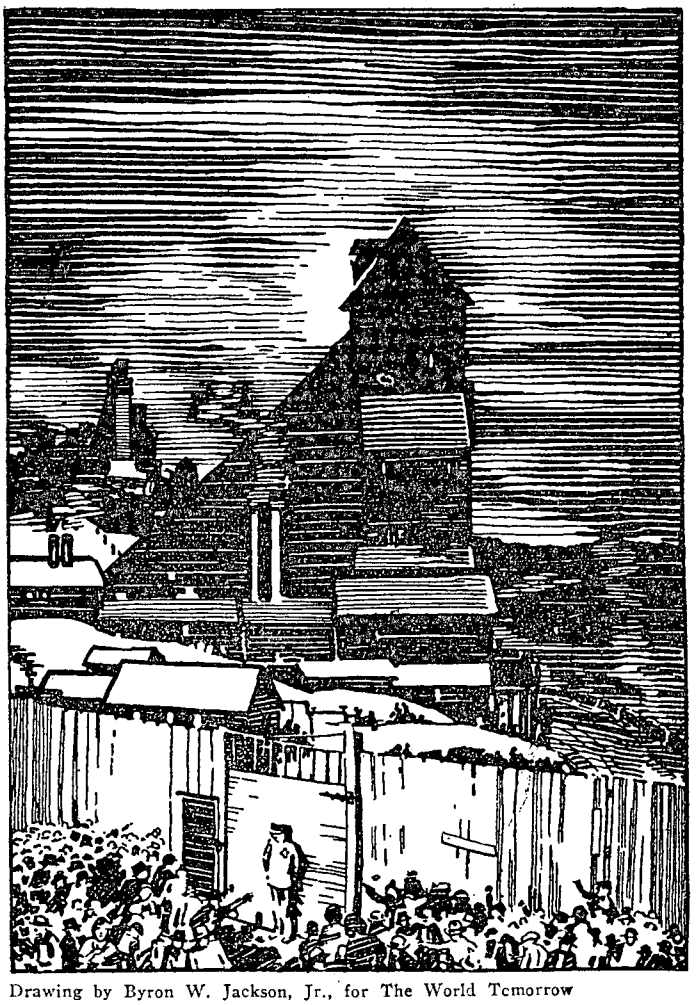
It was at this outer gate, on a country road, that a crowd of striking miners and their sympathizers, including some fifty women, were gathered at about 5:30 of the morning of November 21. There were between two and six hundred persons in this crowd, these being the lowest and highest estimates given. It was still far from light. The crowd marched some five hundred yards up to the second enclosure. They were in their usual formation. The front rank carried American flags. Beside the color bearers marched a group of women. At the gate the crowd was stopped by the captain of the newly organized state police. The gate was shut and locked. The captain was standing on the gate, dressed in citizen's clothes with no distinguishing mark save a policeman's badge, which may or may not have been visible. He told the crowd that they could not enter, that they had broken the law by marching through the property, as the state of Colorado specifically forbids any type of picketing.

This was the first morning that the captain, Louis N. Scherf, had been at the mine. The strikers had never seen him before. It is doubtful whether seventy yards back a person could discern the speaker at all. Behind Mr. Scherf were some seventeen of his guards. A leader of the miners, Adam Bell by name, stepped forward and asked to have the gate unlocked. Miners and guards (there were only eight guards on the grounds before this morning) had on previous occasions "had words" before the men were permitted to march through the grounds. This morning, when Adam Bell put his hand on the gate, he was "side-swiped" with a club. A sixteen-year-old boy stood nearby holding an American flag. The banner was snatched from his hand, the pole broken, and the flag trampled upon. The crowd started to rush the gate.

While Mr. Scherf was ordering the men to keep out, some of his guards were inviting the "dirty, yellow sons-of-bitches" to come over and "have it out." It was this threat that this same sixteen-year-old miner stated "no man could stand for."

When the crowd rushed the gate, Adam Bell either jumped or was pulled over. In either case the guards admitted that once inside the fence he was badly beaten up. Then the guards threw tear bombs among the miners. This dispersed the crowd, part of which went to the east, and broke through the fence, apparently to flank the guards.

A rock battle occupies the next scene. From the testimony of both guards and miners given on the stand and off, it appears that the first general exchange of missiles was due to the bombs. One miner testified to returning six rocks. The crowd certainly did not come armed



Drawing by Byron W. Jackson, Jr., for The World Tomorrow

Trifles That Pull Triggers

Warfare continues in the coal fields of Colorado (see The Survey, December 15, page 357). As this issue goes to press, it has broken out afresh, with a "pitched battle" between state police and strikers at Walsenburg, in which one miner was killed, a miner, a state policeman and a boy seriously injured. To understand how the tension of an industrial dispute snaps with violence and bloodshed, it is necessary to go behind the press reports and look at the total situation. The time of day, a chance remark, the grade of a road, the sixteen-year-old enthusiasm of a flag bearer—such seemingly irrelevant details are likely to be the important elements in the picture. Erwin F. Meyer of the Department of History, University of Colorado, sends The Survey an analysis of the events at the Columbine Mine some weeks ago which gives a clear and detailed case history of a typical industrial outbreak. He says, "I wrote this from the data gathered that afternoon and in subsequent interviews with miners, guards and witnesses, as well as from the testimony at the inquest. . . . This analysis is part of the permanent record of the University of Colorado's historical collection."

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with missiles or for that matter generally armed at all. Outside the second gate, over the district which the strikers travelled there were few rocks to be found. It was a cultivated, grazing country. The ammunition for this fight was supplied from the inner mine property itself. There was a general exchange of rocks, sticks, stones, cans and bombs. But over the entire road, down a hundred and twenty yards of which the guards retreated before making their final stand, one could hardly find more than a bushel basket of rocks.

Mr. Scherf, an experienced Army man, undoubtedly saw that his company was seriously threatened in their original position. He ordered a general, slow retreat to a cross road. About ten yards from this cross road is the third, electrically charged, enclosure into which Mr. Scherf and his men could have retreated and been assured of personal safety. Standing at the cross road the captain ordered a halt. He turned and asked one of his men for a gun. None testified to carrying or shooting rifles. Mr. Scherf fired two shots in the air. There does not seem to have been any perceptible pause after his shots fired in the air and the volley which seventeen or eighteen men fired into the crowd. Each man emptied his Colt.

It was about 6:15 when the actual shooting took place. Morning had just broken. In addition to the pale light, there was considerable dust and also gas fumes, so that clear vision for more than a hundred yards seems doubtful. In addition the mine guards were making their stand on a slightly lower terrain than the gate entrance itself so that one might see the upper part of a man's figure if a hundred yards away and on the road, but hardly the whole figure. On the east side were the homes of the miners. Persons coming down from the east in clear day would have a complete vision of the mine guards. Some miners told the writer that they saw Mr. Scherf's hand go up. They thought that he was ordering them to stop their advance as there was to be speaking. So the first ranks, that had been dispersed by the gas bombs at the second gate, pushed forward only to hear guns bark. The nearest man to the guards was twenty paces away when he fell.

The crowd stopped and retreated after the general volley leaving some six or seven of their number on the ground.

The inquest was held by a coroner, Dr. J. M. Weaver, before a jury of six men. This jury, after listening to testimony all day, returned the verdict that the decedents "came to their deaths in Weld County, Colorado . . . as the result of gunshot wounds received in mass assembled and invading the mine property after having been properly and legally warned not to enter the same and of the perils attending such invasion, by proper and lawful officers of the State of Colorado. That the said gunshots were fired by persons unknown and who are members of the State Law Enforcement Department and the said deaths are not felonious." Thus did the state settle the entire matter.

Some interesting facts were brought out at the inquest. The coroner who presided denied the attorney for the families of the decedents the right of cross-examining any witness. In fact, because this was a coroner's inquest and not a trial, these attorneys were only permitted to question witnesses on sufferance of the district-attorney. The district-attorney passed on the propriety of each question which counsel for the strikers asked. If the attorneys asked more than two questions of a witness they were held to be blocking the progress of the inquest.

From the testimony given that day it is extremely doubtful whether there was any basis for press reports that machine guns were turned on the strikers. One machine gun was being set up after the crowd rushed the gate. It was not in position during the actual fight. Mr. Scherf, on the afternoon of November 21, was overheard to say that riot shells could account for a particular type of bullet removed from the head of one of the wounded men. Just who fired riot shells remains a mystery, the more so since the guards all testified to having only side arms.

All the state militia officers who happened to be on the scene that morning testified that they were unable to say that a single shot was fired by the miners. No mine guard was wounded by a bullet though attacked by a crowd of from two to six hundred. Moreover, the mine guards were lined up across a space about twenty yards wide. Either miners are almost unbelievably poor shots or else they fired no guns.

Armed peace reigns today waiting another crisis for another massacre.

A SCORE of poems, written in the Bryn Mawr Summer School for Women in Industry, have been made into a booklet, beautifully bound and printed, under the title The Workers Look at the Stars. While some of the verses were written by Hilda W. Smith, executive secretary of the school, the majority of the poems came from the students themselves. The little book is published for the benefit of the Vineyard Shore project —an effort to establish a resident school for women workers with an eight months' session. Copies may be ordered, at $1.00 each, from the office of Resident Summer Schools for Women Workers in Industry, 218 Madison Avenue, New York City.

GIRLS UNDER TWENTY-ONE years of age may not be employed as singers, dancers or entertainers in restaurants or cabarets in Massachusetts, under a recent ruling of the Supreme Judicial Court on the night work law. The case was that of an American-Chinese restaurant in Boston which had a contract with an agent to furnish entertainment. Among the entertainers supplied were girls between fifteen and twenty-one years of age, who were called on to appear after ten thirty at night. The case was brought by the Department of Labor and Industries. The court held that "The fact that performers were employed by an independent contractor is not a defense. The offense was committed if the defendant permitted them to work in his establishment within the prohibited time. The participation by the girls in an exhibition of singing and dancing could be found to be work within the meaning of that word as used in the statute."

A REPORT on a study of Hours and Earnings of Women Employed in Power Laundries in New York State has just been issued by the State Department of Labor. The study, made by the Bureau of Women in Industry, of which Nelle Swartz is the director, included 10,784 workers, 30 per cent of all women employed in power laundries in the state. It showed that 75 per cent were scheduled to work more than 48 hours a week. In New York City, 18 per cent, during the week studied, "were employed in excess of the legal maximum of fifty-four hours." There were practically no violations of the hour law up-state. The median weekly rate of pay of women laundry workers was $14.76. "The pay was higher in laundries with short scheduled hours. The median rate was $15.42 for women scheduled to work 48 hours or less, $14.60 for women scheduled to work more than 48 hours." The report includes a brief history of the industry, a consideration of seasonal factors, and a tabulation of the statistical material on which it is based.

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The Negro Migration to Cities

By T. J. WOOFTER, JR.

SINCE emancipation, nothing more astounding than the recent shift of Negroes to both Northern and Southern cities has occurred to affect the contact between the races. From 1900 to 1920 Negro city population increased more than a million and a half, while the Negro population of rural areas gained less than 72,000, or about 1 per cent. The white drift to the cities was also striking, especially in the South; but despite this drain the white rural population managed to increase slightly.

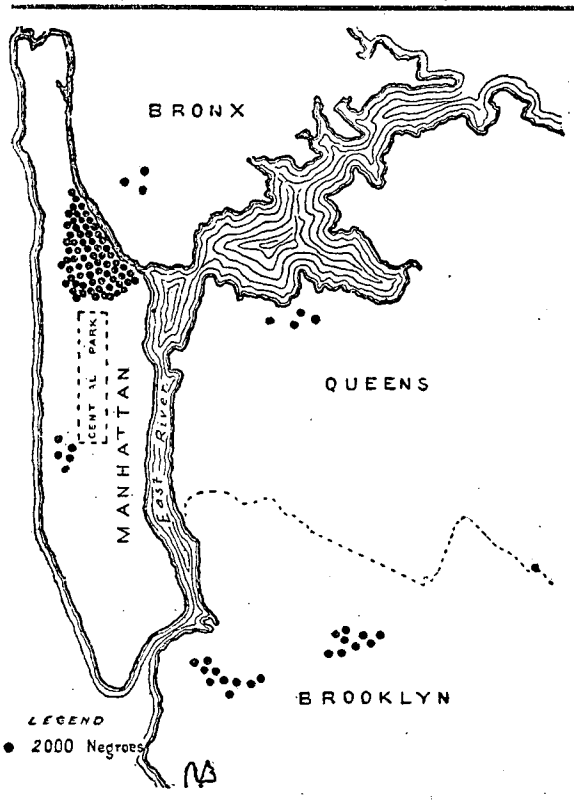
The greater part of this migration occurred from 1910 to 1920. During that decade the Negro population in cities increased 875,000 and the rural population actually decreased 240,000. The 1925 estimates of the Census Bureau indicate a further increase of some 600,000 in the Negro urban population, making a total increase of more than 2,100,000 for the twenty-five-year period, a growth of more than 100 per cent.

Contrary to the general impression that the Negro migration has been chiefly northward, a study of the census figures shows that from 1900 to 1920 southern cities gained 886,173 Negroes, while northern and western cities gained 671,292. On a percentage basis, however, the increase in the North was 105 per cent, as against 65 per cent in the South. During the latter half of the twenty-year period the gain in the North was considerably more rapid than between 1900 and 1910. This only serves to emphasize the fact that both in South and North the trend of the Negro population is definitely cityward, and that both the North and the South are concerned with the problems of the city Negro. Such a wholesale displacement of population necessitates fundamental readjustments in the communities from which Negroes move, in the communities to which they come, and in the whole pattern of Negro life.

Since the Negro city population is relatively new, it has been possible, in a survey just completed by the Institute of Social and Religious Research, to study certain phases of the process of this migration at work, with its resulting segregation, concentration, neglect, self-improvement and amelioration of the migrants. The inquiry was limited to the general characteristics of city Negro neighborhoods including housing, recreation, and schools. A detailed report of the findings has just been issued by the institute under the title Negro Problems in Cities (Doubleday, Doran and Company, $2.50).

The plan called for intensive studies in sixteen cities—Philadelphia, New York, Buffalo, Indianapolis, Chicago, Gary, Dayton, Louisville, Lexington, Knoxville, New Orleans, Memphis, Charleston, Winston-Salem, Lynchburg and Richmond. These comprised four of the six cities with a Negro population of more than 100,000, and six of the sixteen with a Negro population of between 25,000 and 100,000. In addition, a few smaller places were taken merely for the sake of contrast and comparison. The study therefore was concerned primarily with the most intense form of urbanization—that of large cities. The staff included Madge Headley Priest, who specialized on housing, W. A. Daniel, who specialized on schools, Henry J. McGuinn, whose special study was recreation, and the writer, who served as director.

It is remarkable that a million or two-thirds of the increase between 1900 and 1920 should have been concentrated in the metropolitan centers of the East and the Middle West. Abnormal concentration in large cities and neglect of the smaller cities is more characteristic of the North than of the South, because each city in the South is immediately surrounded by a rural Negro population which can be drawn in as trade and industry expand. The migration to northern cities, however, comes from long range. In most cases, the destination is selected by the migrant on the basis of knowledge that others who have moved to that city have made a success. This tends to draw newcomers to places where migrants have already gone in large numbers.



New York City

Eagerness to squeeze profits from the land is responsible for most of the overcrowding in Negro districts. Congestion in cities has made some intensive use of land necessary; but in many instances the actual crowding caused by a desire for more than a fair return on the value of the land has increased until it has produced deplorable conditions. The density of the Negro population in cities ranges from 336 per acre in New York City to 20 per acre in Winston-Salem. On account of

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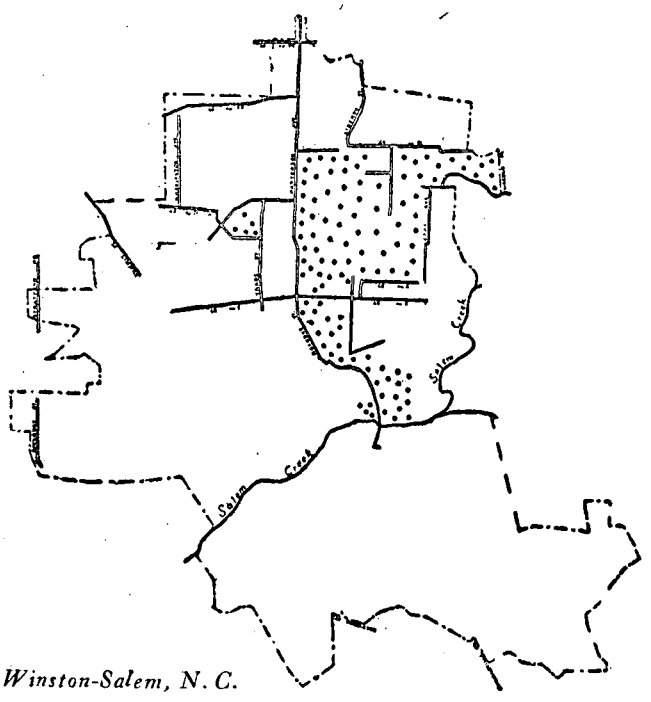
their size and intensive growth, the large cities have much greater density of population than the small cities.

In eleven tenement houses, selected as typical by the Division of Housing of the Health Department of Philadelphia, 175 families were living in 354 rooms, an average of two rooms per family. Forty-one families lived in one room, 75 in two, 45 in three, and 7 in four. One hundred and sixteen families shared 48 public toilets. In New York, Chicago, Buffalo, Louisville, Memphis, and New Orleans, similar conditions were found in tenements, arks, rookeries and rows in old changing areas where multiple dwellings are crowded with migrant families.



Winston-Salem, N. C.

Congestion is due largely to conditions over which the Negroes have little control. They are obliged to go to segregated neighborhoods and nowhere else, and thus are subjected to vicious exploitation. This exploitation is often very loosely supervised by the municipality, so that both the land and the houses become dangerously overcrowded. The congestion is increased by the necessity for many families to take in lodgers either to pay high rentals or to meet substantial payments on homes under purchase.

In these dense neighborhoods overcrowding saps vitality and moral vigor. Many people attribute the excessive Negro death-rates from tuberculosis, pneumonia and the diseases of infants to inborn racial traits; others attribute crimes of violence and irregularities in family life to peculiar emotional equipment of people of African descent. Whether or not these conditions are influenced to some extent by heredity, the institute's study of the effects of environment indicates that they are also profoundly influenced by the conditions of life in cities.

In Philadelphia, where it was possible to get data for the Negro population, the ward with the lowest density—63.6 per acre—was found to have had in 1924, 230 Negro deaths from tuberculosis per 100,000 population, while the deaths under one year per 1,000 births were 8.9. The corresponding figures for the ward with the greatest density—170.4 to the acre—were 400 and 13.2. Evidence of the same general relation of density to death-rate was found in other cities.

There is no question that the inferior living conditions of Negroes contribute largely to respiratory, intestinal and venereal diseases, and to the high infant death-rate. It is also evident that wherever control has been undertaken, improvement immediately results. In Lynchburg, a highly organized and effective health department keeps down its rates through education and supervision. In Richmond, the health officer holds each nurse accountable for the death of any baby from intestinal disease.

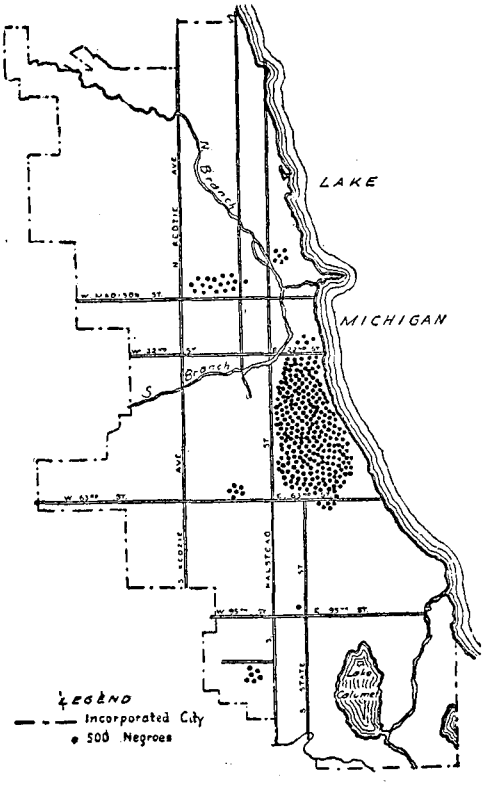
Since 1920 there seems to have been a tendency in all cities to decrease sanitary inspections and to rely upon complaints to bring bad conditions to light. This is manifestly unfair to a group made up of persons unfamiliar with city conditions. Negro tenants do not know where to make complaints; and many landlords dispossess those who complain. Since Negroes are thus handicapped, it is especially unfortunate that their rights as citizens are often disregarded. In no city studied was there evidence that Negro housing areas are effectively controlled by the health, building, zoning and public-service departments. The health departments, seeking to reduce their mortality and morbidity rates, are least neglectful.

Rents vary with the amount tenants can pay. The average for northern cities is $7.19 per dwelling per week, and for southern cities $3.74 per dwelling per week. Rents run from a minimum of sixty cents per room per week in Lynchburg to a maximum of $1.78 in Gary. Even in New York, where the range of wages is considerably higher than in Buffalo, Gary and Philadelphia, and where rents in Negro sections are not quite so high, it was discovered that rent took 23.4 per cent of the total family income of 747 Harlem families studied.

The recreational activities in Negro neighborhoods constitute as definite a group of problems as those of housing. Juvenile delinquency was found to be much more prevalent among Negro children than among white, and gangs are as numerous.

Negro neighborhoods are especially limited in municipal facilities for the use of leisure time. This is of outstanding significance, taken in connection with the crowded housing

North and South alike, Negroes are crowded into segregated districts. On the diagram of Winston-Salem above each dot represents a group of 300 colored inhabitants. (Charts from Negro Problems in Cities, the volume reporting the detailed findings of this study.)



Chicago

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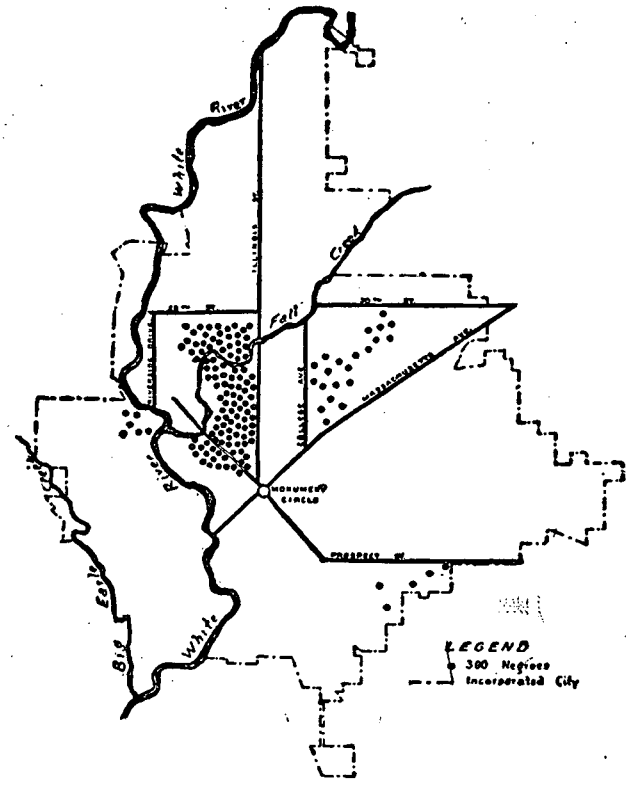
conditions which force so many of the young to find their recreation away from home, especially as conditions in many pool rooms, dance halls, and other commercial amusement places for Negroes were found to be deplorable.

In the study of the schools made by Mr. Daniel, it was found that "school funds are not adequate to meet the needs either in the North or in the South. The South, however, is not only poorer than the North but also less disposed to distribute such funds as are available according to the school population."

"The Negro schools in the South are a secondary consideration," his report continues. "In comparison with schools for white children they have fewer seats in proportion to the school population, more pupils per teacher, more double sessions, fewer teachers, poorer salaries, fewer and smaller playgrounds, and less adequate provision for the health and comfort of pupils and teachers. They also have few, if any, of the 'extras,' such as libraries, lunchrooms, auditoriums and gymnasiums; and the courses of study in the high schools and normal schools are more restricted. In practice, the policy toward the Negro schools is based on a feeling that less care and attention must suffice.

"In southern cities, there are still teachers in Negro elementary schools who themselves have not completed the elementary grades. In some cases it is still possible for such teachers to get themselves appointed, particularly if they can get a letter from some influential white person in the city. One woman who was appointed principal says that her letter read as follows: 'I do not know Mary, but I believe she has the right spirit.' One man who had been a waiter in a hotel secured the following recommendation from the manager of the hotel: 'I do not know how much James knows, but he has been a mighty good boy.'

"Although there are many people who secured their appointments in this way, it is becoming increasingly difficult to secure an appointment on this basis, owing to the adoption of minimum standards for appointments to the elementary schools where the abuse was the greatest. The difficulty now is in the adoption of the correspondingly higher standards of eligibility for appointments to the high schools and normal schools."



Indianapolis

In such items as salaries of teachers, preparation of teachers, courses of study, and laboratory and literary facilities, the contrasts between Negro and white high schools are greater than the contrasts between Negro and white elementary schools. No cities south of Washington have Negro normal schools that measure up to the standards of accrediting agencies in this field. The training of those teachers assigned to the training of Negro teachers, and the facilities at their disposal, do not entitle these schools to consideration as professional normal schools.

One of the most encouraging signs of advancement revealed by this study is the tendency among the Negroes toward home ownership. The number of home owners had increased materially in every city visited except New Orleans, and the increase from 1920 to 1925 in northern cities was especially rapid. In most cases the slum sections were relatively constant in population, with income and outgo about equal, while the population of the home-owning sections was increasing.

Revealing Rural Social Facts

By E. C. LINDEMAN

IT can no longer be said truthfully that the whole of government expenditure on behalf of agriculture goes toward the discovery of facts about farm animals; farm folks have at last been recognized as a part of the rural problem. True, the amount of money spent upon social research is still infinitesimal when compared with the total which goes for soils, crops and animals but since the enactment of the Purnell bill, small allotments have been made to the rural sociologists, and they are beginning to publish a set of interesting facts. They were already at work prior to the government's official sanction but henceforth we may expect to see their productions multiply.

The group of rural sociologists who appear to be digging beneath the surface of rural stereotypes (J. H. Kolb of Wisconsin, Dwight Sanderson and Bruce Melvin of Cornell, Carl C. Taylor of North Carolina, C. E. Lively and Perry P. Denune of Ohio, Wm. Edw. Garnett of Virginia, Carle Zimmerman of Minnesota, H. W. Mumford of Michigan, et cetera) seem to be chiefly concerned with facts which reveal the character of the rural population, its standard of living, and its various social relationships. The following list of research bulletins issued from 1923 to 1927 represents fairly the current direction of enquiry:

Service Relations of Town and Country; Rural Primary Groups, and *Rural Religious Organizations,* by J. H. Kolb; *The Social and Economic Relations of Farmers with the Towns in Pickaway County, Ohio,* by Perry P. Denune; *Some Rural Social Agencies in Ohio,* by C. E. Lively; *The Rural Health Facilities of Ross County, Ohio,* by C. E. Lively and P. G. Peck; *How Minnesota Farm Family Incomes are Spent,* by Carle Zimmerman and John D. Black; *The Marketing Attitudes of Minnesota Farmers,* by Carle Zimmerman and John D. Black;

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Rural Organization, by Carl C. Taylor and Carle Zimmerman; *The Social Areas of Otsego County, N. Y.,* by Dwight Sanderson and W. S. Thompson.

Most of these studies have been conducted under cooperative arrangements with the Division of Farm Population and Rural Life of the United States Department of Agriculture and consequently we may anticipate some future attempt at correlation and generalization. The output during the coming decade will, however, consist largely of detailed local studies in which some form of statistical method is applied to the discovery of social facts.

MOST recent of the Ohio State University publications is the study by Perry P. Denune of the relations of farmers with their nearby towns. Here we have a set of significant facts which for the most part corroborate a former and similar study in another Ohio county and are therefore sufficiently trustworthy to warrant a few generalizations. It is revealed, for example, that the country church is an extremely tenacious institution: like the British Empire, it has been disintegrating for a half-century but it never disintegrates. Farmers have abandoned their open-country trading centers but they adhere to their open-country church. They travel twice as far to trade as they do to worship. Thirty-three per cent of the farmers in this county belong to country churches but they purchase only 8 per cent of their material necessities in country and hamlet stores. Obviously, other studies are needed to reveal something of the quality of this remaining country-church membership before it can be safely assumed that the rural church is to be permanently maintained.

In spite of popular opinion, there is very little social cleavage between farmers and townspeople. There is a class-consciousness between owner-farmers and tenants and farm laborers and this is, perhaps, more marked than any other form of class feeling. Slightly different patterns of behavior are to be noted among these groups; for example, of all the farm families studied, 88.6 per cent owned automobiles, while only 60 per cent of the farm laborers owned cars. Farm laborers, consequently, did more of their trading in the country or hamlet stores, and farm tenants purchased a relatively larger portion of their goods from mail-order houses. These are, however, distinctions which the author of the bulletin does not emphasize.

On the other hand, Mr. Denune does make the point that while a friendly social relation exists between farmers and townspeople, this is not equally true on the economic level. Farm folks and town folks, apparently, get on amicably until they begin to have economic dealings with each other. "Town merchants," he writes, "for the most part looked upon farmers not primarily as fellow members of their communities but as potential customers." On the other hand, "farmers bought their supplies wherever they could get them most conveniently or most cheaply." The probable meaning of this paradoxical conclusion is that economic activities have somehow become separated from the social whole of which they are a part: farmers and town merchants do not feel any compulsion to socialize their economic life. And, from the psychological point of view, this is probably the crux of the so-called agrarian problem: the farmer continues to believe himself to be an exploited man. And, who indeed is prepared to deny the validity of his conviction?

New Pamphlets on Play

THE LONE GIRL SCOUT TRAILMAKER. *Girl Scouts, Inc., 670 Lexington Avenue, New York City. Price 10 cents.*

Adventures and equipment for the tenderfoot who would go a-scouting but lives too far from others to make up a troop to accompany her.

TRAMPING AND TRAILING WITH THE GIRL SCOUTS. *Girl Scouts, Inc., 670 Lexington Avenue, New York City. Price 35 cents.*

What to wear, what to take, what to eat and how to cook it, first aid to the injured, and other details pertinent to a handbook on hiking and camping.

PLAYGROUNDS OF THE NATION, *by Florence C. Cox. Bulletin No. 20, Bureau of Education, U. S. Department of The Interior. Government Printing Office. Price 35 cents.*

The story of the state parks, forests, and bird sanctuaries arranged for study in the elementary schools with many alluring photographs and suggestions for supplementary pictures and reading.

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON PLAY AND RECREATION *(revised edition), by Marguerita P. Williams. The Russell Sage Foundation. Price* $1.00.

A 94-page classified bibliography on recreation in homes, schools, church, industry and community, listing publications which can be found in most public libraries.

"WE RAISE the money and the men spend it" crisply commented one Ohio lady who was asked about relative importance of the sexes in church management in the course of a study on The Relative Place of Women in the Church, recently published by a joint committee representing the Council of Women for Home Missions, the Federation of Women's Boards of Foreign Missions of North America, and the Federal Council of Churches (price 25 cents). The survey on which the report is based covered more than 25,000,000 communicants in city and country throughout the United States, and though it disclosed some tendency to admit women to positions of importance in church organization, in general the weight of present privilege seemed against them. "It seems to be a custom in many country parishes to elect a treasurer with a good careful wife and let her do most of the work," another reply commented. Only seven of the 22 denominations studied, report that women are

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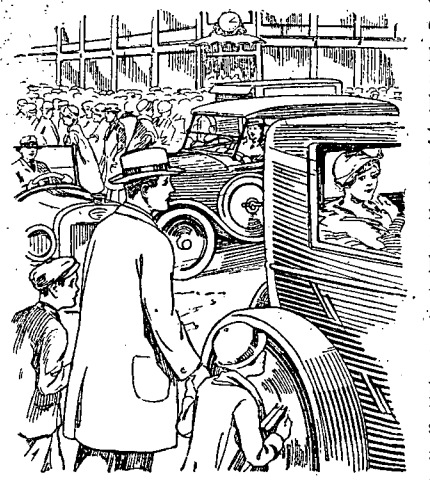
given equal rank with men as laymen and clergy. In nine denominations women are not ordained as ministers or if ordained, their ministry is restricted. They also may be excluded from certain laymen's positions either in the local church or the highest denominational body. "I do not think that Saint Paul's prohibition of women speaking in the church, applying as it did to a particular church in an oriental society, can be held to bar the way for all time against them in the ministry of the church," declares Bishop Welldon of the Anglican See of Durham, England, in a statement quoted in the report. "It will in the end prove impossible that women should be treated as equals of men in the state and their inferiors in the church."

FROM the International Missionary Council comes a somewhat different study on The Place of Women in the Church on the Mission Field, bringing together statements prepared by groups in North America, Great Britain, Germany, the Netherlands, France, Switzerland, Denmark, Norway, Sweden and Finland covering the status of women in the mission fields under their jurisdiction, their political and social opportunities, the position of women nationals of foreign women missionaries in the church. This study is the result of discussions at conferences at Lake Mohonk in 1921 and Oxford, England, in 1923, in which the various groups were asked to collect facts as to the changing position of women in political and social life, and the degree to which the church is adapting itself to such conditions. Copies of the study may be obtained from the International Missionary Council, 419 Fourth Avenue, New York City. Price 50 cents.

WITH the December issue The Community Builder made its debut at 825 Union League Building, Los Angeles, as a magazine of regional and rural planning, town and city planning. Carol Arnovici is editor, and A. Plotkin managing editor, while a group of western specialists in this field serve as an advisory committee. "This publication sets out to deal with the problem of community planning and building from the point of view of conditions and needs presented by the cities and towns of the Pacific Coast," declares the initial editorial. ". . . Wherein we hope to differ from other publications of a similar nature is in the effort toward correlating the reality of science and experience with the fragmentary dreams of the artist and philosopher, so as to achieve a unified ideal that will light the way toward the community of the future." The first issue contains articles on the survival of cities, the place of the subdivision in community expansion, civic centers, downtown parking, The California Principality of W. K. Kellogg, and the California Planning Act of 1927.

FOR THOSE American housing reformers and architects who took part in one or other of the early, enthusiastic study trips of the German Garden City Society in England, it will be difficult to realize that this organization has reached its twenty-fifth anniversary. Appropriately enough, the foreign-group studies of its members are now supplemented annually by visits at home to inspect the fruits of their own efforts which are more numerous and more interesting in their variety of intention and method than the earlier examples of other lands. *Gartenstadt,* the organ of the society, has lately been revived. The contents of a recent number indicate that the German pioneers have entered a stage of fundamental reconsideration of objectives. Leberecht Migge's book on interior colonization (see in The Survey for Sept. 15, 1926) has led to a controversial literature between those who are primarily concerned in bettering the lot of the urban worker and those who combat the great city as such. Among the leaders it is the more radical movement toward decentralization of the whole economic process, toward the fuller use of all natural resources, toward reform of the land laws and the modernization of methods of land settlement that has gained ascendency. And yet, great progress has also been made of late in the technique of planning and domestic architecture, in the inception of which these apostles of the garden city have had the largest share.

THAT the perils of home life should bulk large in any community's safety campaign became apparent in the report on home accidents given by R. L. Forney, statistician of the public safety division of the National Safety Council at its recent congress in Chicago. According to the most complete information available, more people are killed or injured each year in homes than by automobiles or in industry; in 1926 there were not less than 24,000 fatalities as a result of home accidents, and on the known ratio of fatalities to injuries, probably from 4,000,000 to 5,000,000 other instances in which accident caused serious disability. Falls accounted for the death of some 7500 persons, chiefly the aged; burns for about 5000, over half of them children under five; suffocation, asphyxiation, and poisoning for other large groups. In seven of ten cities studied by the National Safety Council home accidents were responsible for more than a quarter of all accidental deaths; in Providence, R. I., during the last four and one half years, they accounted for 46 per cent.



Courtesy Metropolitan Life Insurance Company

In 1927: Are you always on the watch

HOW the burden of accident falls upon a social agency was described at the same congress by Joel D. Hunter, general superintendent of the United Charities of Chicago, reporting the result of a study made by Scott E. W. Bedford, research secretary of that organization. Between January 1 and July 1, 1927, the districts of the United Charities reported 217 families in which accident was the main problem: of these 82 were cases of industrial accident, 135 non-industrial. The industrial cases required temporary relief pending settlement of compensation claims, or relief because compensation was denied. The expenditures for relief in these 82 cases was $2707.89. Non-industrial cases required expenditure of $8012.98 and included 29 home accidents, 9 accidents on the street, 28 due to automobiles, 12 related to recreation, 5 due directly to alcoholism, 2 in school. While the average cost to the society in terms of relief was $59.35, there was one case that required $471, in the six months, another of $721. Mr. Hunter suggested as preventive measures a redoubling of educational efforts and the extension of accident insurance through group policies, which the organization is studying at the present time.

Courtesy Metropolitan Life Insurance Company

In 1627: Parents were always on the watch

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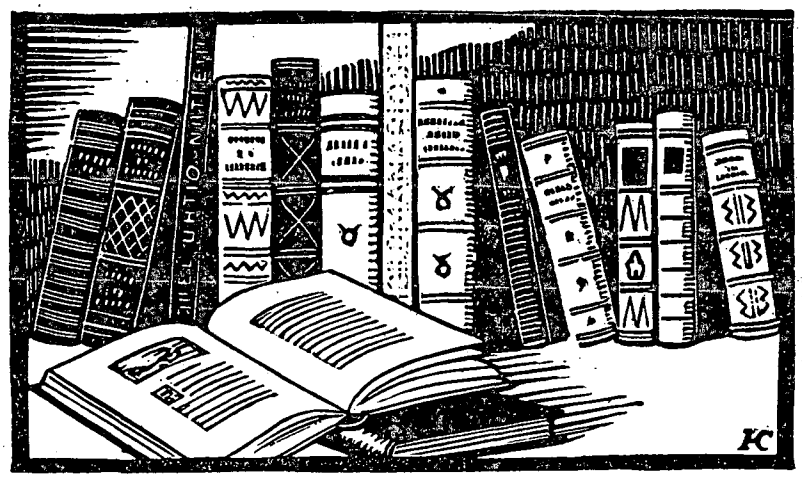
Books in Our Alcove



Humanism in Medicine

THE CARE OF THE PATIENT, *by Francis Weld, M.D. Harvard University Press. 48 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

DR. F. W. PEABODY'S admirable little book called The Care of the Patient, deals, in fact, with the care of the patient's mind, emotions, impulses, hopes and fears by medical students and internes in hospitals. It is addressed throughout to this group of young men and cannot fail to be of signal advantage to them, all the more because it comes from a man who by his scientific work and by his heroism in the face of slowly oncoming death, has made himself loved and honored by the younger physicians of this country.

The book is an illuminating elaboration of one central idea: the study and *care of the patient as a human being* and not merely as the possessor of a particular disease. Even in hospitals, Dr. Peabody is convinced that we can get intimate personal contacts with individual patients, can find out what sort of person each sufferer is—whether he is "cheerful, depressed, introspective, careless, conscientious, mentally keen or dull." But Dr. Peabody is not thinking merely of a mental analysis but also and chiefly of helping and comforting the patient. "Look out for all the little incidental things you can do for his comfort. Some of them will fall technically in the field of nursing and it is worth your while to get the nurse to teach you the right way to feed a patient, change the bed or give a bed-pan. Do you know the practical tricks that make a dyspneic patient (one fighting for breath) comfortable?" Grant that we want to rest our patient. We must know him intimately before we can tell where he can get his rest best—at home or in a hospital; whether it is good for him to see certain people, bad for him to see others.

Then the financial implications of eight weeks in bed, followed by a period of convalescence, are not to be neglected. The circumstances of the patient's life at the time the symptoms first began, the factors which may initiate and perpetuate his symptoms, facts such as "sorrow, disappointment, anxiety, self-distrust, thwarted ideals or ambitions in social, business or personal life and particularly what are called maladaptations to these conditions."

Dr. Peabody doesn't believe in treating his patients like children or in trying to deceive them according to the counsels recently published by Dr. Joseph Collins, in Harper's Magazine, August, 1927. He believes that it is best to explain to the patient how it is that emotional states may bring about symptoms similar to his own "so that he can understand what you are driving at and will cooperate with you."

This little book is written throughout in the atmosphere that we like to associate with what is best in modern medicine—the atmosphere of those at once keen to notice all the facts that may be gathered by those methods of accurate measurements which we call scientific, and equally keen to understand the patient's mind and character and to serve as well as to study. Though designed primarily for the use of medical students and hospital internes, the book cannot but have a wide appeal to all those who care for the victory of humanism over commercialism in medicine.

RICHARD C. CABOT, M.D.

Boston

The Fight on Science

THE WAR ON MODERN SCIENCE. *A Short History of the Fundamentalist Attacks on Evolution and Modernism. By Maynard Shipley. 415 pp. New York, Knopf, 1927. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE author of this book, who is the president of the Science League of America, writes with as much conviction and earnestness as the most notorious fundamentalists. This makes his work extremely interesting reading. Perhaps all this feeling is necessary to stir up those of us who accept rather complacently and calmly the notion that science, which is a modern nickname for Truth with a capital T, will somehow prevail however often it may be crushed to earth. There is altogether too much evidence that the mechanism through which truth triumphs is not entirely automatic and often slow in its operation—perhaps for lack of lubrication. That science is being attacked is obvious, and we need to be reminded that there is more to the war than was manifested in Tennessee. As Mr. Shipley says, the war is directed not merely at certain conclusions in biology, psychology, or anthropology—which conclusions may after all be merely tentative or fragmentary or partisan—but at the methods of science as a whole.

Those of us who accept some of these conclusions and are confident that sooner or later the general notion of evolution, for example, will become universally accepted, will be helped by this book to realize the remote ramifications of the conflict, even if we do not quite agree with Mr. Shipley's statement of "the war issue," namely, one of two opposing cultures.

For some years the open attack of fundamentalists upon

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the teaching of any form of the evolution theory in tax-supported schools has diverted our attention from more fundamental issues. Today many school superintendents are willing to compromise on the evolution issue because there is no use stirring up trouble, because it is wise to be tactful. Tomorrow, however, we shall have precisely the same kind of forces directed toward the abolition of the teaching of scientific physiology, bacteriology or psychology in public schools and universities. Indeed, the shifting of the conflict to these other issues has already begun. In a sense, many of the organized attacks upon various public health and medical practices, such as vaccination, antitoxin treatment, the use of insulin and others, represent a form of fundamentalism in conflict with science. We have always with us those who are in intimate contact with the purposes and methods of God and who therefore can speak authoritatively regarding the falsities and follies of science. From this point of view Mr. Shipley's thesis seems to be sound, and his collection of concrete samples gathered from various fields of battle of recent years gives a vivid picture of what is happening right around us at the present time. The answer is, of course, more science in education and further education in science.

BENJAMIN C. GRUENBERG

American Association for Medical Progress, Inc.

Freud the Physician

THE PROBLEM OF LAY ANALYSES, *by Sigmund Freud. Bentano's. 316 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS volume contains two of Freud's recent contributions, The Problem of Lay Analyses, translated by A. Paul-Maerker Branden, and An Autobiographical Study, translated by James Strachey. In addition there is a sympathetic introduction by Dr. S. Ferenczi.

The problem of lay analysis is discussed in the form of a Socratic dialogue between Freud and an "impartial listener," the latter asking questions and raising objections, which Freud attempts to answer. The book has precipitated considerable discussion among analysts, culminating in the question of the nature and extent of scientific training necessary to practise psychoanalysis, which took place at the last International Psychoanalytical Congress in 1927.

The central theme of the volume is concerned with the question whether a layman, that is, one who is not a physician, is competent to practise psychoanalysis or should be allowed to do so. It begins with a brief description of two very common types of nervous illness, such as attacks of fear in public places and sudden development of cramps in the fingers of a pianist when he begins to play before an audience. The author then gives an outline of the usual medical advice in these cases, such as travel, rest or change of occupation, and shows how ineffectual these are in curing such nervous disorders, because the real difficulty has its origin in the part of the mind of which the sufferer is unaware, namely his unconscious. Therefore he must finally come to a form of treatment which deals primarily with these unconscious difficulties, that is, psychoanalysis.

The impatient and at times irritable impartial listener is antagonistic at first and represents a fairly common type in his instinctive opposition to psychoanalysis. But as the theme is unfolded, when he is told the history and theoretical basis of psychoanalysis, how these cases of neurotic illness are managed, the newer concepts of the structure and functions of the mind, the development of personality and of the sexual life, the formation of various complexes, all of which are so important for an understanding of the neuroses, he gradually becomes less antagonistic and more deeply interested as the author unwinds his masterly elucidation.

These explanations lead by an easy transition to the central question of lay analysis, whether a layman, one not a physician, should be allowed to practise analysis, or whether it is desirable for him to do so, even if the layman has been well trained in analysis itself to the exclusion of other medical subjects. Here is the crux of the entire question and it is here that Freud makes some of his most significant remarks. He admits that four-fifths of his disciples are physicians, that psychoanalysis began as a medical problem and so far as it can help the neurotic sufferer, it must remain a medical problem. Although it originated as a purely therapeutic procedure, it has now become a distinct science whose field is the unconscious mental processes of all human activities. The contribution of non-medical analysts to various branches of human culture, such as anthropology, cannot be minimized, but the actual treatment of patients by analysis began as a medical procedure and must remain one.

Every person who has been analyzed does not become thereby competent to become an analyst and treat others in turn. The most practical problem confronting psychoanalysis at present, is organizing the knowledge it has acquired through a quarter of a century of clinical investigation. It is this organization of the means for systematic training in psychoanalysis which constitutes one of its most important tasks. The solution of the problem put forth by lay analysts, that the latter should cooperate in a preliminary examination and frequently during the analysis itself, with a member of the medical profession, is no solution at all. In the first place, the diagnosis frequently does not become clear until the analysis has been in progress for a considerable period, and under these conditions it needs the training of a physician, preferably a psychiatrist, to determine the exact status of what may be a puzzling situation. In the second place, frequent consultations with a physician, in whom the patient may have more confidence because of the medical authority invested in him, may disorganize that "transference" which is so important for the analytical treatment.

IT is necessary for all analysts to be medically qualified so that they themselves may deal with these situations, and so guard the interests of the individual patient. For instance, in a given case, if certain symptoms arise during an analysis, it is essential that the correct interpretation be given, whether such symptoms are physical or organic or whether they are transitory manifestations of the neurosis itself, as these latter so often closely simulate actual bodily disorders. This is one of the strongest arguments for the limitation of analysis to physicians.

Freud, while admitting all this, yet makes the statement, that many of the subjects which belong to medical training are useless in practical analytical work, and adds this rather dogmatic statement with which we cannot agree: "Although this [medical] knowledge is highly valuable for those who need it, it would not assist the analyst to understand a neurotic condition nor to alleviate it." Psychoanalysis should be restricted to those who, like Freud himself, have had a thorough training in the medical sciences. A knowledge of psychiatry and neurology is absolutely necessary and these cannot be understood without a complete medical

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training. Freud furthermore admits that an untrained analyst can do as much harm as an untrained surgeon. If one wishes to adopt psychoanalysis as his life work, one must know the human organism as a whole and this knowledge can be acquired only through medical training.

The following statement of the "impartial listener" is of great significance in nullifying Freud's arguments for lay analysis: "I now understand your position toward lay-analysis. You insist there must be lay-analysts. However, as you have to admit their insufficiency for the task, you compile everything that could serve to excuse them, and make things in general easier for them." When it is taken into consideration that the "impartial listener" is Freud himself, this statement becomes the most potent reason for the elimination of lay analysts. This is reinforced by Freud's concluding remark on the question of lay analysts, which appeared after the publication of his book: "I admit that as long as schools such as we desire for the education of analysts do not exist, medically trained persons are the best material for future analysts. . . . Similarly, I share the expectation that all the problems relating to the connection between mental phenomena and their organic, anatomical and chemical bases can be attacked only by persons who have studied both, that is to say, by medical analysts." As far as can be determined at present, this is the final solution of Freud's attitude on lay analysis. In this recent paper, he still holds firmly to his previously expressed opinion, that psychoanalysis is not a particular branch of medicine, not even of medical psychology in the old sense of the term, but is the substructure, perhaps the foundation, of all psychology.

The autobiography, which forms the second part of the volume, amplifies Freud's previous history of psychoanalysis. Here Freud, as in all his published psychoanalytical work, speaks as a physician and shows how the development of psychoanalysis would have been impossible without a medical training. He gives the history of the analysis from its early beginnings and its gradual amplification and development as the unconscious mental process and the structure of the ego became better understood. It is fascinating reading, like all the autobiographies of great scientists, for instance, that of Darwin. It shows that psychoanalysis is the result of years of patient and careful observation and not the unproductive speculation of an arm-chair psychologist. For Freud is first and foremost a scientist; he has always remained in the closest touch with analytic material, adding here, rejecting there, modifying from time to time through widening and deepening insight; and when experience made it necessary, he did not hesitate to introduce a drastic alteration in views previously enunciated. This latter attitude is an answer to those who criticize Freud for his seeming "inconsistencies."

ISADOR H. CORIAT, M.D.

Boston

The Poor Still Are Poor

THE INCOME AND STANDARD OF LIVING OF UNSKILLED WORKERS IN CHICAGO, *by Leila Houghteling. University of Chicago Press. 224 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS study by the late Dr. Houghteling is in many respects the most careful and enlightening analysis of working-class incomes and expenditures which has yet been made in this country. It was originally undertaken because it was felt by some that the well-known Chicago budget for dependent families which had been drawn up by Florence Nesbitt, was on a much higher scale than that which most of the unskilled workers could secure for themselves and that consequently it should be lowered. A number of employers furnished Dr. Houghteling with the names and addresses of low-skilled workers who had been with them throughout the preceding year. Only those who were married and had at least one dependent child were chosen for analysis and, for 467 of these, data on the earnings of the chief wage-earners were collected from both the employers and from the households, while the facts of family composition, of other sources of income, and of expenditures were secured by personal visits.

The income of each of these families was then compared with what it would have cost to maintain it upon Miss Nesbitt's budget and it was found that in 69 per cent of the cases, the earnings of the male head of the household were insufficient to bring the family up to this budget. In 43 per cent of the families, indeed, the difference between the earnings of the chief wage-earner were more than 20 per cent below this standard.

This inadequacy of earnings forced the families, of course, to increase their incomes from other sources. In 23 per cent of the cases, the mothers went out of the home to earn. In nearly four-fifths of these cases, they had two or more dependent children and in over half, three or more. Employed children, nearly all of whom were sixteen years or over, furnished the next most important source of income, while slightly over 20 per cent of the families also kept boarders or roomers. Nevertheless, when all these sources of income were added, it was found that in 45 per cent of the cases the total family fund was insufficient to enable them, even when taking account of their varying family composition, to secure the standard budget.

This budget of Miss Nesbitt's was then in turn analyzed to determine whether it was too high rather than that wages and the actual standards of living of the families were too low. A detailed investigation of the dietaries of fifty-four typical families for a month showed, however, that one-third did not have sufficient protein, over two-thirds did not have enough calories, and three-quarters had an inadequate quantity of phosphorous and of iron.

Nor were the housing requirements of the Nesbitt budget excessive. The recommendation that there should not be more than one person for each single and two persons for each double bed is certainly moderate, and yet in practice 52 per cent of the families did not come up to this standard; 67 per cent of the families, moreover, averaged over one person per room.

Nor did these families seem to be spending their money on luxuries rather than upon these necessities. Only 20 per cent of the total number had telephones and an equal proportion pianos, 40 per cent owned victrolas, but only 7 per cent possessed radios. Finally, only 3 per cent owned automobiles.

Unskilled labor has a much larger average percentage of unemployment than the group studied, for only those were included who had been on the books of the companies throughout the year. Hence the proportion, therefore of the purely unskilled who fell below the standard set was undoubtedly higher than the 70 and 45 per cent shown here.

This study demonstrates that despite the great increase in productivity and in real wages during the last decade, there is still a great deal of poverty in the country. The lot of the families of urban unskilled workers is still

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very hard and our economic system for all its prosperity does not, if this study is typical, give them even the basic means for a good life.

Leila Houghteling's death seemed to those who knew her to be a singularly heavy loss both to the city of Chicago where she had lived with such effectiveness in bridging the gap between those in distress and those who were in positions of economic and social leadership, and to the University of Chicago where she had just begun what bade fair to be a distinguished career of scholarship. But we should all be grateful for this careful and brilliant study which, in its addition to our knowledge, serves as a noble monument to a rare and humane personality.

University of Chicago PAUL H. DOUGLAS

Useful for Immigrants

HANDBOOK FOR IMMIGRANTS TO THE UNITED STATES, *by Marian Schibsby. Foreign Language Information Service, New York City. 180 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

AMONG the lesser fruits of the War came a desire for single-mindedness in development and culture for those dwelling in these United States, so there sprang full-armed into being a legion of organizations for "assimilation" of the immigrant. Brochures and pamphlets galore were destined to help in the process, but so condescending in tone and so banal in content were many of them that the American public finally frowned on the attempts. Then the field of "Americanization," once so over-occupied, became almost deserted.

The time is ripe for *real* factual information for immigrants, presented on a straightforward basis, with no condescension or sentimentality. This the Foreign Language Information Service now ably supplies. Miss Schibsby, with her thorough knowledge of immigration, has given us no nostrums of 100 per cent patriotism, but information essential to aid the immigrant in understanding the problems confronting him. The range of the handbook is wide—immigration laws and their administration, labor conditions in this country, geography and resources of the United States, agriculture, transportation facilities and practical considerations such as money and learning English—and the mass of complex material is as clearly and simply as it is ably presented.

It is to be hoped the book will soon be translated, that other than English-speaking immigrants (great as their numbers are) may have the benefit of its information. The chief drawback to the attempt is that much of the material is of the rapidly-changing variety which must be kept constantly up to date. So useful a compendium of careful information may enlighten the native American as well as the foreign-born residents of this country.

JANE PERRY CLARK

Hard Thinking Ahead

BUSINESS CYCLES: THE PROBLEM AND ITS SETTING, *by Wesley C. Mitchell. National Bureau of Economic Research. 489 pp. Price $6.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

AN enormous amount of study has been devoted to business cycles during the years since the War. In every industrialized country in the world students have been eagerly collecting facts and seeking explanations. These contemporary studies for the most part take the form of attempts at description and understanding with a view to ultimate control in the interest of more regular and therefore more abundant production, more stable employment and wages, a fuller and better ordered social life. Professor Mitchell, probably the world's foremost authority in this field, has been studying the problem for twenty years, and during the past seven he has had at his disposal the unsurpassed facilities of the National Bureau of Economic Research. The present volume therefore constitutes an event in the study of cycles. It will be followed as soon as possible by a second, on The Rhythm of Business Activity. Together with the accompanying volumes of statistical data, also to be issued as quickly as possible, and Willard L. Thorp's big book of Business Annals since 1793, already published, they will constitute the most comprehensive study of business cycles ever made, not only showing the results already attained and pushing farther forward the frontier of verified knowledge, but marking out lines that future investigators must follow.

Following the general plan pursued in his earlier study, published in 1913, Professor Mitchell presents first a survey and classification of the bewildering array of explanations of cyclical movements offered by theorists during the past century. He next arranges, criticizes and interprets the enormous mass of statistical evidence accumulated in the course of modern studies of cycles. Finally he presents and explains the body of information collected by the Bureau from its study of contemporary reports of the state of business and published as Business Annals. As a result, he comes to this modest conclusion:

> My earlier impressions that business cycles consist of exceedingly complex interactions among a considerable number of economic processes, that to gain insight into these interactions one must combine historical studies with quantitative and qualitative analysis, that the phenomena are peculiar to a certain form of economic organization, and that understanding of this scheme of institutions is prerequisite to an understanding of cyclical fluctuations—these impressions have been confirmed by my efforts to treat the subject in a simpler fashion.

There is, then, if Professor Mitchell be right, no simple and easy explanation, and therefore no simple and easy remedy. Only patient and comprehensive work along many lines offers much help toward real understanding and consequent intelligent action. It is cold comfort for those who seek a panacea, but it is knowledge worth having in a world where we are prone to run after men who cry Lo here and Lo there. Hard work and hard thinking—without them there is no effective social control.

HENRY RAYMOND MUSSEY

Wellesley College

"My Child Won't Eat"

CULTIVATING THE CHILD'S APPETITE, *by Charles Anderson Aldrich. Macmillan. 127 pp. Price $1.60 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS is a familiar call for help heard in many a modern home. Often it turns into a war-cry and then the fight is on between parents and child. "Anorexia," or lack of appetite, is a major cause for alarm among the more prosperous, but it is seldom a source of complaint in orphan asylums or hospital wards! Dr. Aldrich has written this sound and timely book in an effort to put common sense into over-anxious, over-credulous heads. Loss of judgment seems to be just one more phase in our standardized age of the child. To try to improve on nature via dietetics may also mean to buck it; to let well enough alone works better in the long run than to cram calories into children. Why

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not regulate breathing? Dr. Aldrich asks—in our current hysteria why stop at spinach?

Health cards and charts, cursory school tests are some of the trouble-makers in their emphasis on height and weight comparisons. It is a mistake to expect every child to conform physically to such general tables, rather than to treat each one as an individual. When a child maintains a normal growth it is the better part of wisdom not to interfere. "The family, environment, and the natural build of the child are the essential factors . . . it is only important to help him to fulfill his own inherent possibilities." Better an ounce of respect for normal processes than tons of ideal fat!

Dr. Aldrich goes into the nature of hunger and appetite, from both the physiologic and the psychologic side. A little wholesome neglect of the child, or more love, if that is the real root, with some practical re-education of parents, nurses, households and teachers is the only way out of this appetite mess. Dr. Aldrich gives us the benefit of his own experience in muddled homes. He preaches what he practices and he does us a service in a practical, sane sense. In these days of child study and confusion, it would be a happy sign if more brains and less theories went to our heads.

HALLE SCHAFFNER

RUN OF THE SHELVES
A DESCRIPTIVE LIST OF THE NEW BOOKS

THE CHANGING COLLEGE, *by Ernest Hatch Wilkins. University of Chicago. 132 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

ESSAYS and adresses by the President of Oberlin College on the college curriculum, teaching, registration, the college bookstore, athletics, etc. These earnest and liberal papers express the author's educational beliefs brought about during his experience as Dean of the College of Arts, Liberal and Science, of the University of Chicago, during the years 1923-1926.

H. S.

SAPLINGS, *2nd Series, 1927. Scholastic Publishing Company. 126 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

VERSE, sport stories and essays comprise this second annual volume of Saplings. The editors of The Scholastic, a national high school magazine, present the work chosen from manuscripts submitted by American students in the annual contest for scholastic awards, including the Witter Bynner Scholastic Poetry Prize. This record of creative writing merits praise for the quality of its poetry and prose, as regards content and form. Compared with the usual college output, it is surprising to find that this selection shows greater maturity and depth, with sound young values in the way of poetical insight and skill.

H. S.

EDUCATION IN A DEMOCRATIC WORLD, *by Ernest DeWitt Burton. University of Chicago. 165 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE addresses published in this volume represent a few of the speeches made by Dr. Burton during his administration as president of Chicago University. They are the expression of his convictions regarding the function and purpose of education, coming from a wide range of experience, the crystallization of a liberal personality active in the cause of his ideals. The obligation of the educated, a school of politics, education and religion, etc., are some of the chapters herein. H. S.

GETTING WELL AND STAYING WELL, *by John Potts. Mosby. 223 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

"NOT many years ago the tuberculous were diagnosed to *die;* today they are diagnosed to live." This book sheds light on ignorance shown by laymen, patients and doctors in regard to the disease. Patients, general practitioners and public health nurses will find the volume of value. H. S.

RECREATION AND AMUSEMENT AMONG NEGROES IN WASHINGTON, D. C., *by William H. Jones. Howard University Press. 216 pp. Illustrated. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS recreation survey by the head of the Howard department of sociology is in the Chicago tradition. It gives us not only the immediate facts but also psychological backgrounds and pertinent sidelights. The leisure-time problem is here presented as the outstanding problem of the urbanized Negro who has achieved a minimum of economic status. We learn how in almost every branch of popular recreational activity—most outdoor occupations and the theater—race discrimination adds to the usual difficulties of control and uplift. Not only that, but, because of its helplessness, the Negro population is exposed to contacts with the recreation of the whites at its worst. Of unusual interest are chapters dealing with "passing for white"—permanent or occasional—as a means of culture transfusion, and reviewing the pathological effects of inadequate amusement facilities. The author presents his case vividly and without moralizing, and his suggested program of reforms is likely to prove of influence.

FRENCH POETRY AND MODERN INDUSTRY, 1830-1870, *by Elliott M. Grant. Harvard University Press. 218 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THIS scholarly study illustrates the conflict which always arises between experience and literature when a civilization suddenly leaps ahead. In such a case, academic tradition endeavors to live on by looking the other way and pronouncing the newer experiences as unsuitable for literary treatment; but inevitably the poetic urge breaks through and creates new forms.

THE SOCIAL SCIENCES AND THEIR INTERPRETATIONS, *edited by William F. Ogburn and Alexander Goldenweiser. Houghton Mifflin. 506 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THERE is no adequate way to review briefly such a book as this. It is an effort to orient the social sciences in reference to one another. An array of thirty-two specialists have made their contributions in pithy extracts of about ten pages each. Anthropology, economics, history, political science and sociology; each is oriented in the whole field of social science. Some of the names included are Gras, Dewey, Olmstead, Lowie, Myers, Marett, Sapir, Boas, Hobson, Hale, King Pound, Sorokin, Barnes, Oppenheimer, Hankins, Barnard, Cohen and others of their class. Every day the question is asked about the province of this or that social science. That is always an embarrassing question to the social scientists. This book comes as near to being an answer as any brief volume can.

NELS ANDERSON

THE MEDICAL DEPARTMENT OF THE ARMY, *by James A. Tobey. Johns Hopkins. 161 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

WRITING AND EDITING FOR WOMEN, *by Ethel M. Colson Brazelton. Funk & Wagnalls. 258 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

BUYING POWER OF LABOR AND POST-WAR CYCLES, *by Asher Achinstein. Columbia University. 164 pp. Price $3.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

INDUSTRIAL PROGRESS AND REGULATORY LEGISLATION IN NEW YORK STATE. *National Industrial Conference Board. 142 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

INDUSTRIAL ART AND THE MUSEUM, *by Charles R. Richards Macmillan. 102 pp. Price $1.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON PLAY AND RECREATION *(Revised and enlarged edition, 1927), by Marguerite P. Williams. Russell Sage. 94 pp. Price $1.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

IDEAS FOR CHILDREN'S PARTIES, *by Arthur Howard Strouse, Published by Arthur Strouse. 138 pp. Price 60 cents postpaid of The Survey.*

CIVIC HEALTH AND WELFARE, *by Annie R. Caton and Marian Berry. P. S. King (London). 138 pp.*

PRINCIPLES AND PROBLEMS IN VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE, *by Frederick J. Allen. McGraw-Hill. 390 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

THE RATE OF LIVING, *by Raymond Pearl. Knopf. 185 pp. Price $3.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

MAJOR SPORT FUNDAMENTALS, *by Charles E. Hammett. Scribner's. 220 pp. Price $2.00 postpaid of The Survey.*

OUTDOOR STUNTS, *by Arthur H. Strouse. Published by Arthur H. Strouse. 144 pp. Price 50 cents postpaid of The Survey.*

TOWARD THE LIGHT, *by Mary Fels. Dobsevage. 281 pp. Price $2.50 postpaid of The Survey.*

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Do You Watch Your Nest Egg?

By HENRY SALOMON

SOME reader may say that a nest egg does not require watching, that nothing will hatch from it anyway. But I am talking not of a china egg but of one that, if watched, may hatch out comfort and security in your later years. We are told that of one hundred average men who start out in life at the age of twenty-five, fifty must work or receive assistance from others at the age of sixty-five; of this number, twenty-two are worth nothing—that is, 38 per cent of the original one hundred are dependent. Probably figures as to women, if they are available, would show a still greater number dependent. The necessity for saving during productive years is obvious. But, how save?

One of the greatest difficulties an Investment Officer of a bank faces in his advisory talks to investors is to get them to understand clearly why the yield or return on an investment is, except for a few exceptional factors that I will describe later, proportionate to the risk. Free capital gravitates toward the highest grade security in the world. In other words, there is always money not required in business or primarily for income that is seeking investment largely for the sake of security of principal and marketability, and this money is used for the purchase of securities that are the nearest like money. At present U. S. Government Bonds enjoy that prestige. We must use U. S. Government Bonds, then, for a starting point, and we find that the yield on the long term government bonds if held to maturity is about 3.17 per cent. We can measure the risk we are taking in an investment made at the present time by assuming that a 3.17 per cent is the return on the safest security obtainable, and that with certain slight exceptions any return we get that is higher than 3.17 per cent is being paid to us for some additional risk that we are taking. For instance, if we have a bond that yields 5 per cent, we are being paid 1.83 per cent for taking a greater risk than if we had bought a government bond yielding 3.17 per cent.

A FEW of the factors that may slightly alter the factor of risk are: 1. Marketability. Lack of a ready market for a security will usually make the return higher than that of a security of equal merit that has a ready market. 2. Tax exemption. A certain class of bonds, notably state and municipal bonds, on account of their being exempt from income taxes and frequently from state and local taxes, sell on a slightly lower yield basis than other securities of equal merit. 3. Low yielding stocks. Frequently stocks that have a record for paying stock dividends, or that are in a position to pay a stock dividend, sell to yield very little. The investor, however, must include these stock dividends over a series of years to find the true yield.

As the same advice does not apply to the one who has $500 to invest and the one with $100,000, let us assume that you have saved nothing and are just beginning to save. What shall you do with your money?

THE SAVINGS ACCOUNT: For money deposited in a savings bank or the savings department of the trust companies or national banks, you are usually paid 4 per cent. It is best to use the savings account until at least $1,000 has been saved, and it is well to leave that amount there, easily available in an emergency. The element of risk is slight on a savings account, but of course defalcations and failures have occurred and the best safeguard against this is, if possible, to have accounts in two or three banks, and in the larger institutions rather than in the smaller ones.

HAVING tucked our $1,000 safely away, it would then be a safe and prudent thing to put the next thousand as it is accumulated in some good local building and loan association shares, where the return will be usually 5 per cent to 6 per cent. Consult your banker, who should give you unbiased advice about the institution in whose shares you plan to invest. The next step would logically be an investment in government bonds, and the next in municipal or state bonds, but because these bonds at present yield less than a savings account, I believe it better to go on to the next class of securities.

RAILROAD BONDS: The next thousand dollars can safely be invested in the highest grade railroad bonds, which can be bought at present to yield from 4.25 per cent to 4.60 per cent. Railroad equipment bonds, which have had a very low record of defaults also come within this category. Railroad bonds can indeed be bought to yield from 4.15 per cent to 7 per cent, and over, but the small investor should confine his investments to those of the highest grade. Gilt-edge railroad bonds are easily marketable, and no present foresight can prophesy a time when our great railroads will not be necessary for our trade and commerce.

BANK STOCKS: Bank Stocks stand well up in the list of investment securities from the standpoint of security and yield over a period of years. An investment in bank stocks for a small investor should be confined to the banks of the larger metropolitan centers. The immediate return on most bank stocks is usually low, ranging from 2½ to 4 per cent, but as the stockholder gets "rights" every few years that usually are of considerable value, they may bring a high average of return over a period of years, and with growing institutions in larger cities this usually results in a gradual appreciation in the value of the stock.

PUBLIC UTILITY BONDS: In this classification I include bonds of electric light and gas companies, telephone and telegraph companies, and street railway companies. The small investor is warranted in making an investment in the "underlying bonds" of the better class of operating companies, except the street railway bonds, which are no longer of an investment nature. Securities of this type can be purchased to yield between 4½ per cent to 5 per cent at this time. It would be well at this stage of our investment program to avoid the bonds of holding companies or collaterally secured bonds.

INDUSTRIAL BONDS: Bonds of this class generally do not

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enjoy a very high investment rating, and purchases for a small investor should be confined to the bonds of the large well-managed industries that have a record of high earnings over a long period. The question of management and changing needs of the people for the commodities of the different industries are an element of risk that must be considered. Bonds of the type recommended can be bought to yield 5 per cent and 5½ per cent at this time.

Real Estate Bonds: The better class of real estate bonds can be bought to yield between 5½ per cent and 6 per cent, and when well secured should be a good investment. Bonds of this type are usually not as marketable as other high grade listed bonds, and for this reason the investor is able to get a slightly better yield. There is danger, however, in purchasing these bonds from the printed circular, and it is advisable not to purchase such bonds until the investor has assured himself from the banker located in the town or city where the real estate lies that the real estate is of the value represented by the selling house, and that the property is not mortgaged for more than 60 per cent of its value. It is furthermore advisable to ascertain if the real estate is in a location where values are apt to be stable.

Public Utility Preferred Stocks: The Preferred Stocks of the high grade operating companies of public utilities, which yield at present between 5 per cent and 6 per cent, might well be included here, but preferred stocks of public utility holding companies might well be deferred until later.

Foreign Government Bonds: A moderate investment in securities of those countries which have stabilized their currency and which seem to be on the way to recovery would seem to be justified at this stage, and the present return of between 6 per cent and 6½ per cent perhaps accurately measures the degree of risk that is assumed.

Common Stocks: These securities offer the biggest problem to one who has invested enough money in fixed interest or dividend-bearing securities so that he can afford to indulge in the luxury of uncertain returns. How far is an investor justified in making an investment in common stocks? One excellent investment source now recommends the investment of 20 per cent in short term bonds, 40 per cent in high grade bonds or preferred stocks, and 40 per cent in common stocks. For the smaller investor I would change this so that the percentage in short term bonds would be invested in a savings account, and the investment in common stocks would not be over 25 per cent of the investor's total assets.

THERE is only one way for a small or large investor properly to make an investment in stocks in this class; that is by purchasing a widely diversified list of the highest grade common stocks. Instead of attempting to guess, the investor can largely eliminate the element of risk by purchasing a list of not less than 20 good stocks that have had a good earning record over a period of years. It is just as easy to buy one share in 20 different companies as it is to buy 20 shares in one company. If a wide list of common stocks is purchased, hold these purely for investment, disregarding the fluctuations in the various stocks, take up all "rights" and keep all stock dividends. It is more than reasonable to assume that in a list of 20 common stocks there may be one or two that may not be profitable investments, but the appreciation in the value of the others should more than compensate for any losses.

Diversification in common stocks has been in practice in Great Britain successfully for a great many years, and British investment trusts are well known there. Within the last few years there have been a great many such trusts established in this country. Undoubtedly a great many of these American investment trusts will turn out successfully, but our lack of experience makes me reluctant to advise the purchase of these investment trusts indiscriminately. The investor should first assure himself of the management of American investment trusts. There are so many different types. The type that will serve the small investor the best is what is known as the "fixed trust." Here you purchase an interest in a diversified list of stocks, and you have the proprietary interest in those stocks at all times and they are not subject to change. I should also prefer a fixed trust which has a reserve to take up "rights" and retains stock dividends for capital investment. This type of trust will usually give a lower yield to the investor, but should prove more profitable over a long period than the other types of trusts. If you invest in a trust that sells its stock dividends and rights, you will immediately get a larger return, but if the trust takes up these rights and stock dividends and pays you only the current cash return on the stocks you will be building up for yourself a capital investment that will yield you a larger future return at a time when you may need it more than you do now.

INVESTING is at best an individual problem; no two situations are the same. The best advice is consult your banker, but the purpose of an article like this is to attempt to spur people on to have a greater interest in something that may not seem vital now, but which will be of great importance in future years, and to interest the reader in learning enough about investing to establish a sound investment policy.

There are a few generalizations which it would be well for all investors, especially amateurs, to remember:

Give a wide latitude to the factor of error of your own judgment and that of others by diversification.

Don't get too enthusiastic about any one security.

Don't get into new inventions or new processes.

None of the great sages of business have applied their generalizations without making allowance for the ever-present human equation; their own liability to error and the possibility of the unexpected. They kept their judgment flexible and never attempted to impose their views dogmatically even upon themselves.

The counsel of the business adviser who can keep those who rely upon him in this opportunist attitude is far more valuable than are the prophecies of all the "cyclists," statisticians and chart-makers in the world.

The investor of the present day with all the facilities available for sound investment advice through his banker, Better Business Bureau or sound investment houses, has himself to blame if he is entrapped in any of the wildcat schemes or by the fake stock salesman who has enriched himself by so many millions in the past at the expense of the unwary investor.

Glenn Frank in a recent article says "We may dream of independence, decide to set about its conquest, and be determined to pursue it until it is won, and still end in the poorhouse unless straight thinking and detailed planning are put into the venture. Economic independence is a safeguard of intellectual and spiritual independence."

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Over My Desk

A Monthly Talk with Executives

By ELWOOD STREET

Director, Community Council of St. Louis

So Easy to Tune Out

WE learned a few lessons about radio publicity in the recent St. Louis Community Fund campaign. Don't try to broadcast music or speaking which is not of first-class quality. People don't have to listen to the radio unless they want to. If the social agency talent, such for example as a settlement club quartette, is not really good you are much better off having a really good professional quartette sing some song interpretive of the spirit of the social agency. The agency can get with charge, talent of a far higher class than the radio station can get for nothing. The radio station will be glad to make room for such talent on its program. Moreover, it is better to have the most able speaker in town speak about the work of the social agency than to have a board member of indifferent speaking ability but good intention. The able speaker who is well known as a citizen of responsibility can win a place on the program and can win a hearing from his auditors which the other persons could not. Get the best talent available and then make it perform over the radio to suit your purpose.

Build from the Bottom Up

Herschel Alt, of the Juvenile Protective Association of Los Angeles, dropped into the office the other day. His discussion re-emphasized the tremendously important point that in building up a campaign organization the building must be done by the volunteer workers and not by the paid staff. The executive of the social agency or the campaign manager can tell the citizens of the community what to do and how to do it and can provide the materials they need, where they need them and when they need them. On the other hand, no campaign organization can be successful, in our opinion, unless the campaign chairman gets his immediate subordinates, they in turn get theirs, and so on down to the ranks of the workers themselves. Only by carefully subdivided responsibility and the careful enforcement of that responsibility all the way down the line can permanently successful organization results be secured. A captain who has not secured his own workers but has had them handed to him by the campaign organization can well disclaim any responsibility for their unsatisfactory performance. They, in turn, may find themselves out of harmony with a captain whom they have not known and by whom they would not have been selected.

Send the Agenda

Ida Cannon, of the Massachusetts General Hospital, has a pertinent proposal on notices of meetings: "Announcements of meetings should include the questions to be discussed. Such a plan tends to develop interest in the meeting and more sincere regret at necessary absences. Members occasionally drop into my office to find out what happened when they couldn't be present at meetings."

An interesting form of notice of meetings is used by Stockton Raymond, general secretary of the Boston Family Welfare Society:

"The Administrative Committee will meet on Monday, September 26, 1927, at 3:30 P. M., at the Central Office, 41 Hawkins Street.

Stockton Raymond, General Secretary

"DOCKET:

Report of Committee on Workers and Salaries:

Transfer of Miss ——— from assistant in ——— to assistant in ———

Appointment of Miss ——— as assistant in ———

Salary increases effective October 1st

Miss ——— from rate of $—— to $—— a year

Mimeograph Machine

Dues to American Association for Organizing Family Social Work

Bureau for Aged Women

Dr. ———'s suggestions

Automobile for ——— District

Telephone calls in ——— District

Measuring device on telephones

Approval of bills."

Won't a Postal Do?

The Community Council of St. Louis has had a thousand government postal cards printed with this statement on the left of the address side of the card: "A message from the Community Council, 2221 Locust Street, St. Louis, Missouri" together with the seal of the organization and a descriptive phrase. The back of the card is to be used for all messages not over one hundred words in length whose confidential character does not require enclosure. We believe that from 30 to 50 per cent of our communications may be handled on postals. We also believe there will be some saving in not typing the name, address and salutation above the message. Economy in a social agency will win approval. Carbon copies of the postals can be made if a record is required, on regular 8½ x 11 inch paper so that it can be easily filed.

Luncheon in the Office

"We have been holding a great many committee and directors meetings in our general conference room," says C. V. Williams, superintendent of the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society. "For the sake of conserving time and eliminating the confusion incident to meeting in a restaurant, we set tables in our general conference room and supply each committee member with a light luncheon purchased from a restaurant and served on our own dishes, with coffee which has been made by a member of our staff. We charge the committee members thirty-five cents, which covers the actual cost, and are able to begin the committee meeting promptly, with no loss of time."

Quick Reference to the Minute Book

An easy way to find out what action has been taken on any subject by an organization is suggested by Mary Stotsenberg, assistant director of the Community Chest of Louisville, Kentucky: "We index minutes according to general subjects discussed. In writing the copy for the minute book the subject of each paragraph is used as a heading for the paragraph and typed in red. This device together with the index makes it easy to find the action of the committee on any subject."

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GOSSIP: of People and Things

They Are Helping

SIXTY well-known social workers have volunteered to act as local publicity representatives for the National Conference of Social Work, to be held in Memphis, May 2-9. The volunteers will serve as local boards of information about the program, railroad tickets and the like; encourage an increase in the size of the local delegation; adapt conference news stories to the local press; and arrange for news releases during the conference.

The preliminary program for the conference shows an increased number of round tables—round tables that get down to practical discussion. A pleasant change from the vicariousness of the usual round table.

An Adventure in Living

THE bored recipient of annual reports will find his lassitude scorched when he receives the twenty-fifth annual report of Greenwich House. Here is a thrilling story, a bold adventure in living! The story of young people who felt dissatisfied with 1902's conventional pattern of charity and reform, who believed they could "find a way to better community living if we shared the daily life of a neighborhood, if we spurred local initiative by working with, rather than for, our neighbors." With a neighborhood at hand and a passion for human contacts—time enough later for an institution—they plunged into the business of living with their neighbors. The result, at the end of a quarter century, is measured not by the building and equipment of Greenwich House today, nor by the perfection of any technique, but by respect and affection for Mary Kingsbury Simkhovitch and her staff, from those who have been in and out of Greenwich House as social workers or as neighbors. Incidentally, this annual report is a beautiful thing to gaze upon.

W.R.U. Expands

THE School of Applied Social Sciences of Western Reserve University, Cleveland, has started its twelfth year with a greatly increased faculty. Estelle M. Bonnell is assistant professor in the Group Work Training Course, Henry M. Busch assistant professor, Clara A. Kaiser and Thornton W. Merriam instructors, in Group Work, Mabel H. Mattingly instructor in the Child Welfare Training Course, Dr. Henry G. Schumacher assistant professor of mental hygiene, Alice H. Heston instructor in psychiatric social work, devoting her entire time to field instruction. Margaret Johnson, a member of the first graduating class of the School and for six years one of the secretaries of the National League of Women Voters, is executive secretary of the school.

To the four departments already in existence in the School—Family Case Work, Child Welfare, Group Work, and Public Health Nursing—has been added a fifth, the Training Course in Medical Social Work, undertaken with the encouragement and endorsement of the American Association of Hospital Social Workers, with Agnes H. Schroeder as director.

Enrollment for the first semester included 175 full-time, 11 special students, and 53 students enrolled in three extension courses maintained for staff workers in Cleveland social agencies, making a total enrollment of 239. Of the students entering this year, a larger proportion than ever before have completed the pre-professional requirements in the social sciences, thus enabling them to become candidates for the professional degree conferred by the school.

Prizes for Essays

FOUR PRIZES—$500, $250, $150, and $100—are offered by the National Conference of Catholic Charities for the best essays submitted on sixteen selected topics covering various phases of social work. Any person is eligible to compete. The essays should be from 2,500 to 10,000 words. Closing date is July 15, 1928. Details may be had from the National Conference of Catholic Charities, 305 Vermont Bldg., Washington, D. C.

Are You a Member?

IF you are a member of the American Association of Social Workers you can now join the Foreign Policy Association as an associate member. The membership fee will be $3, instead of the customary $5. The Foreign Policy Association is one source to which you can turn for a dispassionate view of foreign affairs. Its Weekly Bulletin, included in membership, takes you behind the headlines and gives you in five minutes the gist of the week's developments. Membership gives you, too, a special rate for F. P. A. luncheons, held periodically throughout the year, at which you may hear controversial subjects discussed pro and con. There are F. P. A. branches, in addition to New York, in Albany, Boston, Buffalo, Columbus (O.), Cincinnati, Springfield (Mass.), Hartford, Minneapolis, St. Paul, Philadelphia, Providence, Richmond, Rochester (N. Y.), St. Louis. Membership applications may be sent to 18 East 41 Street, New York, or to any of the branches.

What's in a Name?

THE colored mother who named her daughters after the flowers—Rose, Pansy, Violet, until her imagination ran dry and she called the final girl Artificial, is recalled by a recent experience of a case worker of the New York C. O. S. According to Clare Tousley, the case worker met one of her clients strolling the streets of Harlem, accompanied by her small daughter who was vigorously sucking a long black stick of something.

"Hello," exclaimed the worker. "Is that licorice?"

"No, Miss; that's Wilhelmina."

Are You Promoting Cleanliness?

CLEANLINESS Institute is collecting, and making available for general consultation, all types of material on cleanliness in general (of the person, the home, the school, and the community), and on cleanliness in industrial establishments, in public buildings and utilities, both in this country and abroad. The books and pamphlets now available in the library of the Institute, are listed in a thirty-page booklet, the first comprehensive bibliography on cleanliness to be published. A limited number of copies are available. Address the librarian, Cleanliness Institute, 45 East 17 Street, New York, stating that you are a reader of The Survey.

A Favor

IF you have finished with your copy of The Survey for October 15, 1927, you will confer a favor by returning it to The Survey, 112 E. 19 St., New York. Our supply is exhausted.

Copies of May 1, June 1, July 1, November 1, 1927, and October 1, October 15, November 1, December 1, 1926, will also be welcomed.

Miscellaneous

CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT is the theme of a three-day conference to be held under the auspices of the Chicago Association for Child Study and Parent Education. Dr. William Healy, Dr. Bernard Glueck, Dr. Florence Mateer are among the speakers. The meetings will be held at the Palmer House, Chicago, February 16, 17, 18.

THE SYRACUSE MENTAL HYGIENE COMMITTEE, of which Elizabeth Allen is secretary, recently conducted a course of eight lectures by outside psychiatrists and psychologists on the Mental Hygiene of Normal Childhood. There was an average attendance of 800. Part of the earnings from the course are to be used in providing six scholarships for Syracuse teachers and public health nurses to go to New York City next summer for a study course in Mental Hygiene and Social Case Work.

A STUDY has been completed by Elizabeth T. Shipley, of the children's institutions and child-caring agencies of Reading and Berks County, and of Berks County children under care of organizations outside the county. Copies of Miss Shipley's report may be had at fifty cents each from the Welfare Federation of Reading and Berks County, 526 Washington Street, Reading, Pa.

HOMER W. BORST, executive secretary of the Indianapolis Community Fund, is conducting a course in Administration of Social Agencies at the Indiana Training

(*Continued on page 667*)

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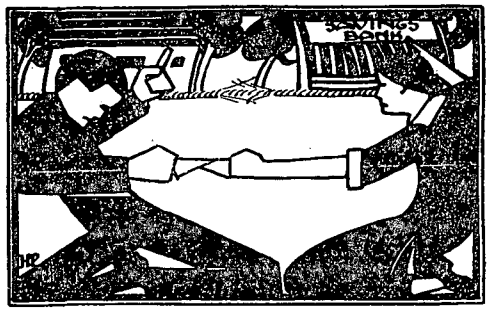
Working It Out for the Conroys

AFTER twenty years of happy married life, their two children grown and their home all but paid for, Mr. and Mrs. Conroy split over a legacy of $300. Mr. Conroy took it for granted, and stubbornly maintained that the money should be used for the final payment on the house—it was the exact amount needed—and thus at one fell swoop realize the ambition of a lifetime and remove the one worry of a patient workingman. Mrs. Conroy, to whom the $300 was left, saw it as the first money that had actually belonged to her personally, and she refused to turn it into the common fund of the family, to which she had contributed twenty years of ungrudging toil. Their whole relationship was soured. They felt they could no longer go on as husband and wife without love. They had sent for a lawyer to advise them about a legal separation at the point where the author, Neva R. Deardorff, who told their true story in the Family Life Number of The Survey (A Puzzle in Cross Words, December 1, 1927) called upon readers of The Survey for a solution. Some of the suggestions sent in response to this appeal follow.



Filling in the Squares

The problem that confronts the good Mr. and Mrs. Conroy is not unlike the problems that confront many hard-working family groups of today. Both worked very hard, saved money, and denied themselves many of the pleasures that go to make every family happy. There seems to have been too much work and too little play. Both took life a bit too seriously, and when the climax came they did not have experience enough to master it. I am certain that when the Conroys married, they immediately "set up housekeeping" and disregarded the pleasure of a honeymoon. They "dug" in and started the long grind that grew rather monotonous to both, though neither actually knew that they were dissatisfied. They raised their children to be good and obedient, but in the daily routine of living they forgot that important phase of occasional change from the commonplace things of life. They were too wrapped up in the making of a living and the saving of money.

Mrs. Conroy evidently adjusted herself to the long grind of denial. Yet if I am any judge of human nature, she many times secretly longed for some sort of change from the one-track plan that was mapped out by her husband. Being a loving and dutiful wife, she repulsed these longings and continued to do her share. If she had given vent to some of her longings and desires, the pathway of their lives might have seen a rift, but the real and serious climax would never have been reached.

Mr. Conroy was quite different, and nursed no secret desires. He was quite content to make an honest living, care for his wife and children, and eventually own his own home. Truly these virtues must be praised, but there was too much of the commonplace and too little diversion.

Mrs. Conroy has loved her husband, because he has always been industrious, sober, and a good father, and for these things she will always love him. Mr. Conroy has loved his wife, because she has been dutiful, helpful, and has decently reared his children; for these reasons he will always love her. Both of these good people have been constant in their love, and no rift will ever change this love, if they can be shown that their lives have been too commonplace and have had too little sunshine.

It was indeed unfortunate that they should have had a windfall of three hundred dollars at a time when the one remaining debt of the family amounted to that exact sum. The money was left to Mrs. Conroy, and in nine out of ten cases the husband would have allowed the wife to use her own judgment in disposing of it; and in nine out of ten cases the wife would have given the money to pay off the debt upon the home—so there you are. The Conroys did not settle the question mutually, as each felt that his plan was best. Mr. Conroy had every reason to feel that the money would go toward the home, because Mrs. Conroy had always bent herself to his wishes in money matters; when Mrs. Conroy refused to abide by his wishes, that good man did not have experience enough to make a satisfactory compromise.

It would not help solve the situation by saying that Mrs. Conroy had a greater right to the money, because here we have the family group, with all working toward the sustaining of this group; and we cannot say that Mr. Conroy should have the final say. The trouble was that each thought the other should give in, and lack of just plain common sense caused the rift in the family relations.

Through the years of married life, I feel that Mr. and Mrs. Conroy have not come to know each other except as business partners. One earns the money and plans how to spend it, while the other partner acts as agent in the transactions planned by the first. Their married life has been a sort of business venture, with the ultimate goal a home free of debt, and then some money in the bank ready for the rainy day. True, this plan of married life is all right if it works, but in very rare cases will it work, as there is something to marriage other than business. Neither had knowledge enough to look deeper into the soul of the other and find the true desires and wishes.

Mr. Conroy must be shown, in the right way, that he has been selfish to a certain degree, in asking that his wife drudge and slave in the home with little or no diversion or recreation outside. This good man must be persuaded that the small debt could easily have been paid off in the regular way, and the money that was left to his wife used for some other purpose. The good student of human nature can show him, by the right spirit, that life within the home was very commonplace and offered nothing of attraction—just a place to eat and sleep. There was love, but the home of today needs more than just love and a will to work and save. There must be diversion from the grind of work, else the home becomes a sort of institution where all things are done at the sound of a whistle. No woman is going to live happily when she has nothing to do but work and save. If Mr. Conroy feels that the married

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existence with his wife was a sort of partnership, he can be shown that Mrs. Conroy had always been a sort of silent partner, who did nothing on her own initiative.

I feel that Mrs. Conroy does not need very much of an approach, as she is the one who has had secret desires for escape from the commonplace, and if she is to return to married life with her husband she will still desire that occasional escape. I know that she has always loved her husband, and admired his thrift and his character.

The great problem seems to lie in the approach to Mr. Conroy. He has loved his wife, because she was good, dutiful and an excellent housewife as well as a good mother. It will not be difficult to awaken a slumbering spark of love within him. I feel that he will freely admit that while the home life that he mapped out was conducive to good morals, quiet living and plenty to eat, something was lacking. Mrs. Conroy should have been given some sort of consideration in the partnership, because she yearned for a change that never presented itself.

Let some student of human nature get these two people together and go over the whole situation as regards the deep human needs of family life today. Let him endeavor to show Mr. Conroy that there must be some escape from the commonplace for all who desire this escape, and I am sure that he will see the light. It can be shown that while Mrs. Conroy may have appeared very happy, there was that longing to do something different once in a while. The right sort of approach can make these things clear to Mr. Conroy, I am certain.

Mrs. Conroy will not need any lesson in thrift, as she has had this, but she will need to know that her husband has the right to live his own life in his own way, so this must be respected. Mrs. Conroy has love enough to realize these things and adjust herself accordingly.

In every broken home where there are children, the children are the ones who suffer the most. If the Conroys have as much sense as I think they have, the right sort of appeal through the two children will have some bearing upon the matter of re-establishing the home.

Now we come to the cause of all the trouble: what shall we do with the three hundred dollars? I have in mind two methods for the disposition of this money, and I think that either will work if the right approach is made. Mr. Conroy wishes to pay off the debt upon his home, and Mrs. Conroy would like to put the money in the bank. The two partners disagree and then dissolve partnership, but the money goes to the keeping of the male member of the partnership. Evidently Mrs. Conroy must have given in a wee bit, else she would still have the money in her own name. This proves that she loved her husband, and she should be easily molded into the plan for a fresh start. Mr. Conroy has had the money, but he has not used it to pay off the debt. This proves that deep in his heart he feels that perhaps he has not been quite fair. If he were dead sure that he was right in demanding the money, he would have used it as he had originally planned.

Now, Mr. and Mrs. Conroy, let us get together and compromise, each admitting that in the struggle for existence and freedom from debt, you have overlooked the finer things in life and paid too much attention to money matters. Mr. Conroy perhaps desires to resume his commonplace mode of living; very well, that can be arranged. The good man can work and save, stay at home every night, and get all of his diversion within the home circle. But he should consider his wife as an active partner and not an agent who carries out his orders. Let Mrs. Conroy make a few plans once in a while, and perhaps she too can plan in such manner that thrift will still be possible within the home.

Mrs. Conroy wishes to escape once in a while from her tedious tasks, and she is entitled to this diversion. Let the family budget be planned so that a certain amount be available weekly to be used by either party as he or she sees fit. If Mrs. Conroy desires an outside activity once in a while, let her use money from this part of the weekly budget. I am sure that the amount needed will in no way interfere with the thrift plan, as Mrs. Conroy's previous life has not been conducive to extravagant ideas. When the budget is planned for each week, let each party have some suggestion to make, and then the partnership becomes active for both members of the firm.

There is still a debt of three hundred dollars upon the home, and this must be paid. But it should not be paid with the money left to Mrs. Conroy, because this money caused all of the trouble and we must devise other means of disposal. While Mr. and Mrs. Conroy lived together there was little for them to do except work, work, and work some more. The weekly plan of budget will care for the debt upon the home, so there will be an incentive to save as much as possible from the weekly wages brought home by Mr. Conroy. Mrs. Conroy wished to start a bank account; a very wise idea. Why not start this account with some of the money that caused the trouble? I suggest that two hundred and fifty dollars be placed in a joint account, with the understanding that no part of it be used for payment on the home, unless Mr. Conroy should become ill or idle. The other fifty dollars should be spent on a short reunion and honeymoon. Let these two good souls get together for a few days, out in the country, free from cares and worry. Let them start all over again, loving and cherishing each other, and never doubting the sincerity of that love, and partnership.

If Mr. and Mrs. Conroy feel that the joint bank account is not a good scheme, let us work upon the idea of partnership. Let the money be divided into equal shares, and each partner allowed to do as he or she pleases. Mr. Conroy may use his share against the debt, and Mrs. Conroy may use hers to start her bank account. I am willing to bet that if this scheme was ever adopted, both would start bank accounts. But then one can never tell—human nature is a very queer creature!

Springfield, Massachusetts JOHN F. PERO, JR.

Damaged Feelings

I have put the Conroy case before my family and their remedies have amused me. My son said, flip a penny and let that decide the problem. Take the whole gift and go on a "bust," said his sister. Let each have half, said my daughter M.

I approved of M.'s wisdom. As the matter stands now, the social worker might, I think, with tact make both parties see that all four of the family are not as happy as formerly, that it is a terrible cyclone of feelings which has made much out of very little. The sacrifice of their home is not worth it. They should take themselves resolutely in hand. Let them divide the three hundred dollars, Mrs. C. invest hers to get her annual nine dollars, Mr. C. reduce the debt but save nine dollars, and annually spend the eighteen dollars in some way which will give the whole family the most pleasure.

The situation seems so appalling and the occasion so insignificant that I hope it is not a real case. The root of the matter is damaged feelings. They are as bad as nerves and of close kin. The Conroys' seem sensible enough to understand.

Cambridge, Massachusetts SARAH W. EIKINTON

Fifty-Fifty

Domestic problems are intriguing to those of us who have lived and attempted the impossible—that of making a perfect home with uneven principals. By uneven principals I mean a partnership that is lopsided, one member of the union either never realizing his—or her—responsibility, or if realizing, sidestepping the difficulties in early married life, always hoping to do some great thing to prove his profession of love and good intention. No doubt the case of the Conroys has such an element. The unexpected good fortune brings to the surface hidden selfishness. Those of us who have lived a family life for

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twenty or thirty years unconsciously want change. A small inheritance would make such change possible.

But Mrs. Conroy will never convince her husband that she is not selfish in wishing to use her own inheritance as it pleases her best to do: for her own satisfaction. While Mr. Conroy seems utterly unreasonable, to his wife, in wanting to appropriate that which is hers, for a practical sensible purpose. Left to themselves, they will never settle the question amicably. Why not introduce a trusted friend to suggest a division, letting each follow his own inclination in regard to the money? Mr. Conroy may not like it, but Mrs. Conroy, being a woman who has worked for her family some twenty years for no pay, will likely appreciate a smaller amount that is wholly her own.

Giving all to the husband will never restore domestic relations. Mr. Conroy may feel fine about the final payment on the house. But his wife will ever after feel that her first chance of a little financial independence was unfairly taken from her. Most conscientious wives want fair play and a fifty-fifty cooperation.

IRENE F. MITCHELL

Washington, D. C.

A Muzzle on Cross Words

When the tension in the Conroy home had reached the place where Mr. and Mrs. Conroy had sought legal advice, Martha, the sixteen-year-old daughter, had lost weight and developed nerves. Edward, the eighteen-year-old son, was brittle, he had no patience with two grown people who couldn't settle a little matter of $300 without breaking up housekeeping.

Martha worried her brain for a solution. She did not understand all the bitterness and disillusion that each parent thought was in the other but she did not believe it was too late for them to give up the idea of separation if only the proper magic could be found. All the way to school that last morning before the separation papers were to be drawn up she thought about it—her father and mother living apart! Around the corner at breakneck speed came a car, one foot was off the sidewalk but, she jumped back just in time. As she did the thought came, "That's it! if any one of us should get hurt, every thing would be all right again. They just need to get away from the thought of this money for awhile." But Martha was too normal to throw herself in front of a car; she'd have to think out some other way. That afternoon she walked home from school with Edward and they had a talk.

After supper Mr. Conroy planted himself in his Morris chair and escaped behind his paper. Mrs. Conroy took up a shirt she was making for Edward and jabbed her needle through the holes in the buttons. Edward fidgetted. The lawyer would be along before long. Martha, seated at the piano, turned suddenly about: "Mother, Dad, please put down your paper. Ed and I had a talk today . . . We don't want home broken up." Mr. Conroy played with his glasses; Mrs. Conroy's eyes filled. "We all want to stay together. Can't we settle this without a lawyer?"

"If I could make your mother see . . .

"Now John, we've been over . . .

But Martha dammed the flood at the source. "We thought maybe, Mother, if you would be willing to put $100 on the Building and Loan, and $100 in the savings bank—"

"Do Mother," added Ed.

Mrs. Conroy looked at Mr. Conroy. He looked down, but she saw his eyelids flicker—a sign she had long since learned meant capitulation, with honor. The bitterness and hardness against him faded. "But what about the other $100?" She'd not surrender too easy.

"You tell that, Ed," Martha prompted.

"Dad never has been to a Junior Order convention, and you've never been away from home a day in our lives. You take part of it and go to that missionary mountain school with Mrs. Alert that she's been telling you about for two weeks, and Dad, you go to the convention."

"That's all right for your father but I can't leave the house, and beside I haven't any clothes to go traveling . . . I'd like it though for they are going to give lessons in French cooking and rug making and have talks on embroidery."

"Aw, mother, you know Martha and I can get along that long."

"Try them," said Father. "It's a good plan. But I don't need $50. Seems to me Martha and Ed ought to have a little change too. What say to $10 apiece to them to do as they please." John was so relieved that he could be generous for the first time in his life.

"I could use it—need some air-plane parts now for my model."

"How about you, Martha?"

"I want some new music, and a shoulder scarf."

Mrs. Conroy got up. "Well if you children can get along it suits me. I reckon we have stayed home too close maybe. If your convention starts day after tomorrow I'd best look after your clothes tonight John. There's the door bell. You go Edward and tell the lawyer we don't need him."

Four months later the Conroys sat at their Christmas table. It was a good dinner they were finishing. The turkey dressing was made by a recipe Mrs. Conroy had learned at the adult school. There were flowers on the table too. Just as they started to push back their chairs Mr. Conroy reached in his pocket and handed Mrs. Conroy a long slim envelope. They watched while she opened it. The deed to the house! Mr. Conroy cleared his throat: "Best thing I ever did, going to that Junior Convention—got a new idea I've been working on and made enough extra to finish up the payments on the house for Mother's Christmas present."

Lakeland, Florida EMETH TUTTLE

"In God We Trust"

I want to analyze the material that caused the dissention in the Conroy family—money. I consider a penny contains two germs, the weaker one, that of an angel; the stronger one, that of a devil. When you become the recipient of money, one or the other of these germs is apt to develop, unless the money is obliged to go right out again to pay a bill or purchase something immediately needed, as was the case with the Conroy family in the twenty years of their married life until the time of the windfall, when the money then lingered unfortunately long enough for the stronger germ to grow, the devil germ to develop, causing the dissension so ruinous to the happiness of the said Conroys. Neither Mr. nor Mrs. Conroy had strenth or moral character or knowledge of how to combat this devil germ; consequently the downfall.

Now if either Mr. or Mrs. Conroy had known the great secret of happiness in married life—namely, love—and had retained the same feeling of love they most probably had toward each other on their wedding day, one or the other might have averted the growth of the devil germ in the money in question.

The feeling a man should have toward his wife and keep all his married life is that of love, such love that he wants her to have the larger share of happiness and of the good things which they share together. A marriage cannot be happy if a man takes a woman in selfish thought of himself only—that she is to be a slave for him and for his children. The same feeling a woman should have of love toward her husband, thinking of his pleasure as well as her own as they go along together, meeting the work and discouragements in the path of life. If love of this kind is maintained all through married life, then when windfalls come, if they be of money or whatnot, the angel germ will sprout alone, making the windfall a blessing and an added happiness to both man and wife and to their children.

J. L. MAULL

Philadelphia

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Easy Go

The Conroys ought to take a trip to California or New York and Blow It In on One Good Time.

New York G. SPRINGER

The Outcome

The story of the Conroys, as told by Miss Deardorff, is all true except their name. And this requires that the whole dismal truth be told. Mr. and Mrs. Conroy did not separate, nor were they brought together by the tactful skill and understanding of sympathetic case workers. Just before the arrival of the lawyer, Mrs. Conroy broke her leg. The three hundred dollars went for doctors' and nurses' bills—for details see When Sickness Hits the Pocketbook, by Michael M. Davis, in The Survey for November 1, 1927.

Communications

With a Quaker Employer

TO THE EDITOR: I feel that something should be said about the article by Robert W. Bruère [in the January Graphic]. I happen to be particularly interested in Mr. Leeds' ideas and know him as a Quaker leader. So I turned to this article in hopeful anticipation. I must confess, however, that my hopes for a clear statement of a most pressing problem—the problem of industrial justice—were considerably dashed by the time I reached the end of the first installment. If Mr. Bruère would use fewer words and, instead of repeating so often such fancy words as "integrative," would see that common words used continually in the discussion of this problem were clearly defined, more light would result from his articles.

For example, he never should have allowed Mr. Leeds to get away unchallenged with that idea that profits are a measure of service. For it is evident that the word profit is used by him in a special sense and not as usually defined, namely as the excess of income which is used to pay dividends on capital or to add to surplus and reserves. When an industry can produce something for which the public is willing to pay a price over and above the cost price, a profit results. But what is the cost price? If labor is exploited, the labor cost is low; if plant is cheap and working conditions bad, the fixed charge is low; and so costs are low and profits high. Costly advertising may build up artificial demand for things essentially harmful, and the community is badly served. Mental gymnastics identifying owner's interests with the worker's interests, so long as owner and worker are different individuals, may be interesting but cannot be truthful.

Mr. Leeds says, "When the profit earned is distributed within the organization to each individual in proportion to his contribution to the value of the product, then it seems to me justice obtains." Very plausible, but note the misuse of the word profit and also tell me who decides as to the value contributed by an individual. Even if the distribution is just, it is in reality an increase in wage or salary paid to productive workers. To be exact, therefore, it should be classed as costs, to be deducted before profit on capital is distributed as dividends or surplus.

It means, of course, that we still cling to the ownership and essential control by the man with the money or its equivalent in the form of credit. The worker is dependent for income and security in his job on the judgment of owners and their hired managers and executives on such questions as amount of output (and therefore number of workers or working time), working hours and conditions (and hence joy or discomfort in the day's work), and price (which directly affects the amount

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available for distribution either to workers or owners). I know, of course, that it will be claimed that this "family organization" gets together in council and decides all these matters by mutual agreement, the worker having his full share in the decision. It can't be done. The essential disparity between the educated and wealthy owner and his executives and the dependent workers, even if the latter own a few shares of stock in the company, is entirely too great. Moreover, the efforts of little organizations along these lines can only be sign-posts pointing the way for great changes in the whole realm of industry, and the fruitage will be small unless a wider social advance is effected and the basic idea of competing for profit is abandoned in favor of nation-wide, or even international, cooperation for mutual service.

In this aspect, these experiments are significant and hopeful. The opportunity for workers, the skilled, the unskilled and the men and women who work with their brains, to grow in ability and experience in management with the object of serving a real need, with the return on capital invested limited to say 5 or 6 per cent, is one of the most favorable features of these experiments. The motives of such owners are of the highest, and they deserve praise and honor for their willingness to take the risks of experimentation.

New York City J. P. WILLIAMS

The Social Basis of Mental Health

TO THE EDITOR: Harry Elmer Barnes may think he knows a criminal when he sees one, but if he will look in the mirror he will see a man who is blasting the reputation of the college that employs him and the magazine that publishes his articles by his atheistical teaching. Let him study the Christian philosophy anew and discover what an ass he is making of himself. Besides the Bible I would suggest two books for the beginning of his study: Personal Religion and the Life of Fellowship, by William Temple, bishop of Manchester, Longman's; and The Inner Chamber, a manual of Devotion, by Rev. Franklyn Cole Sherman, American Guild of Health, Euclid Sixty-first Building, Cleveland, Ohio.

Boston CALVIN G. PAGE, M.D.

TO THE EDITOR: My article would appear to have furnished Dr. Page with an opportunity to illustrate the manner in which his prolonged researches into Christian doctrine have developed in him a spirit of humility, tolerance, urbanity and mental poise. It would seem to be that his letter answers itself much more directly and convincingly than any comments which I might submit. It would be difficult, I believe, for any one to discover in this article or in any other writings of mine anything which is atheistic or anti-religious. At the most, the article would call for a shift of religious interest from the other world to our mundane existence. If this be heresy, may Dr. Page and his friends make the most of it.

Northampton, Massachusetts HARRY E. BARNES

American Isolation

TO THE EDITOR: In your January 1 number, the article by Mr. Sweetser on Isolation is a gem. If some one, following the same method, would as briefly and clearly chronicle the activities at Geneva since the League of Nations was formed, wherein this country has had the good sense to cooperate, the little book that would thus come into existence would fill a long-felt need. I imagine such a little book would show that this country has been slowly but surely becoming more active year after year, and it doesn't take a prophet to foresee the final end that will be reached. Whether this country is a formal member of the League of Nations or not, if it is an actual cooperating and helpful member, the great object sought is attained.

Buffalo ADELBERT MOOT

WHAT ARE THE FIELDS OF JEWISH SOCIAL WORK? "(1) . . . *Community Organization . . . those activities which concern themselves primarily with the organization and development of resources in the Jewish community for meeting its problems . . .*" *(See Pamphlet, p. 3.)*

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THE AMERICAN ASSOCIATION OF HOSPITAL SOCIAL WORKERS—18-20 E. Division St., Chicago, Ill. Miss Helen Beckley, Executive Secretary.

AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR OLD AGE SECURITY—Aim: To promote through legislation adequate provisions for the dependent aged in the United States. Bishop Francis J. McConnell, president. A. Epstein, executive secretary, 104 Fifth Ave., New York City.

AMERICAN BIRTH CONTROL LEAGUE, INC.—Margaret Sanger, President, 104 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Purpose: To teach the need for birth control to prevent destitution, disease and social deterioration; to amend laws adverse to birth control; to render safe, reliable contraceptive information accessible to all married persons. Annual membership, $2.00 to $500.00. Birth Control Review (monthly) $2.00 per year.

AMERICAN HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION—Alice L. Edwards, executive secretary, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C. Organized for betterment of conditions in home, school, institution and community. Publishes monthly Journal of Home Economics; office of editor, 617 Mills Bldg., Washington, D. C.; of business manager, 101 East 20th St., Baltimore, Md.

AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave New York. To provide a better understanding of the social hygiene movement; to advance sound sex education, to combat prostitution and sex delinquency; to aid public authorities in the campaign against the venereal diseases; to advise in organization of state and local social-hygiene programs. Annual membership dues $2.00 including monthly journal.

AMERICAN SOCIETY FOR THE CONTROL OF CANCER—Dr. George A. Soper, managing director, 25 West 43rd Street, New York. To collect, collate and disseminate information concerning the symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publications free on request. Annual membership dues, $5.00.

AMERICAN WOMEN'S HOSPITALS (O.S.)—(Organized, 1917)—637 Madison Avenue, New York. Chairman, Esther Lovejoy, M.D.; Treasurer, Mathilda K. Wallin, M.D. Conducts hospitals and food stations for refugees in Greece, and medical centers in Macedonia and Western Thrace. Continuing assistance to medical work in France, Serbia, Russia and Japan.

THE BOY CONSERVATION BUREAU—90 West Broadway. Suggests all-the-year-round Home Schools for needy boys. Tel. Walker 0313. E. W. Watkins, Exec. Sec'y.

CHILD WELFARE COMMITTEE OF AMERICA, Inc.—730 Fifth Avenue, New York. To secure home life for normal dependent children in preference to institutions; to secure Mothers' Allowance laws in states having none; to urge adequate appropriations for home aid; to promote proper laws affecting adoption, boarding out and placing out of dependent children; to aid in the enforcement of these laws. States Council of Committee comprises volunteer representatives in practically every state. Sophie Irene Loeb, President; Governor Alfred E. Smith, Honorary President; Margaret Woodrow Wilson, First Vice-President; Edward Fisher Brown, Executive Secretary.

CHILD WELFARE LEAGUE OF AMERICA—C. C. Carstens, director. 130 E. 22nd Street, New York City. A league of children's agencies and institutions to secure improved standards and methods in their various fields of work. It also cooperates with other children's agencies, cities, states, churches, fraternal order and other civic groups to work out worth-while results in phases of child welfare in which they are interested.

THE CHILDREN'S VILLAGE, INCORPORATED—Dobbs-Ferry-on-Hudson, New York. A national, non-sectarian training school scientifically equipped for the study, education and development of problem boys and girls, on commitment and by private arrangement—ages 7 to 16. Supported largely by voluntary contributions. For further information address Leon C. Faulkner, Managing Director.

COUNCIL OF WOMEN FOR HOME MISSIONS—105 East 22d St., New York. Florence E. Quinlan, Executive Secretary. Composed of 23 Protestant national women's mission boards of the United States and Canada. Purpose: To unify effort by consultation and cooperation in action.
- Work among Farm and Cannery Migrants, Summer service for college students, Laura H. Parker, Executive Supervisor.
- Religious Work directors in Government Indian Schools.
- Bureau of Reference for Migrating People, follow-up of New Americans.

EYE SIGHT CONSERVATION COUNCIL OF AMERICA—L. W. Wallace, President; Guy A. Henry, General-Director, Times Bldg., New York. Conducts a national educational campaign to promote eye hygiene. Urges correction of eye defects, protection against hazards, proper lighting. Comprehensive publications—lantern slides—lecture material. Cooperation of social agencies invited.

FEDERAL COUNCIL OF THE CHURCHES OF CHRIST IN AMERICA—Constituted by 28 Protestant communions. Rev. C. S. Macfarland and Rev. S. M. Cavert, Gen. Sec's; 105 E. 22nd St., N. Y. C.
- Dept. of Research and Education, Rev. F. E. Johnson, Sec'y.
- Commissions: Church and Social Service, Rev. W. M. Tippy, Sec'y; International Justice and Goodwill; Rev. S. L. Gulick, Sec'y; Church and Race Relations: Dr. G. E. Haynes, Sec'y.

GIRLS FRIENDLY SOCIETY IN AMERICA—15 East 40th Street, New York. Girls and women working together to uphold Christian standards of daily living in the home, in the business world, and in the community. Numbers nearly 60,000, with branches in 44 states.

Service

"THE vocation of every man and woman," said Tolstoi, "is to serve other people."

That, of course, is the justification of social work—that it serves other people. But social workers too often overlook the fact that they do not have a corner on the market. Service to other people is a part of the program of enlightened business today. Service is not incompatible with profits; the two may travel hand in hand. In the January Survey Graphic, Morris E. Leeds, a Quaker manufacturer, says: "If a product is useful, . . . the profit it is able to earn is the best measure of the service it renders."

The challenge to the social worker is that he respect service wherever it exists, and that he emulate the business man in finding for his service a measuring stick—as Mr. Leeds has done.

HAMPTON INSTITUTE—Trains Negro youth for community service. Collegiate work in Education, Agriculture, Home Economics, Business, Library Science, Building Construction, and Summer School. Publishes the "Southern Workman." Free material concerning the Negro and race relations. James E. Gregg, principal.

THE LEAGUE TO ABOLISH CAPITAL PUNISHMENT—A national organization 104 Fifth Avenue, New York City. Dr. George W. Kirchwey, Chairman; Vivian Pierce, Executive Secretary. Organized to abolish capital punishment in every state and in the District of Columbia. Annual membership $1, $5, $10, and $100, including monthly Bulletin.

NATIONAL BOARD OF THE YOUNG WOMEN'S CHRISTIAN ASSOCIATIONS—Mrs. Robert E. Speer, president; Miss Mabel Cratty, gneeral secretary, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City. This organization maintains a staff of executive and traveling secretaries to cover work in the United States in 1,034 local Y. W. C. A.'s on behalf of the industrial, business, student, foreign born, Indian, Colored and younger girls. It has 159 American secretaries at work in 49 centers in the Orient Latin America and Europe.

NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE—Wiley H. Swift, acting general secretary, 215 Fourth Avenue, New York. To improve child labor legislation; to conduct investigation in local communities; to advise on administration; to furnish information. Annual membership, $2, $5, $10, $25 and $100 includes monthly publication, "The American Child."

NATIONAL CHILD WELFARE ASSOCIATION, INC(est, 1912, incorp. 1914), 70 Fifth Ave., N. Y. C. (tel. Algonquin). Promotes as its chief object the building of character in the children of America through the harmonious development of their bodies, minds, and spirits. Its method is, in cooperation with other organizations, to originate and disseminate educational material in the form of posters, books, bulletins, charts, slides, and insignia. Through its "Knighthood of Youth" it provides homes, schools and church schools with a method of character training through actual practice. Officers: Dr. John H. Finley, Pres.; Charles F. Powlison, Gen. Sec'y.

THE NATIONAL COMMITTEE FOR MENTAL HYGIENE, INC.—Dr. William H. Welch, honorary president; Dr. Charles P. Emerson, president; Dr. Frankwood E. Williams, medical director; Dr. George K. Pratt, assistant medical director; Dr. Clarence J. D'Alton, executive assistant; Clifford W. Beers, secretary; 370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Field: mental hygiene, mental and nervous disorders, feeblemindedness, delinquency, dependency, and other mental problems in human behavior, education, child guidance, industry, social work, etc. "Mental Hygiene," quarterly, $3.00 a year; "Mental Hygiene Bulletin," monthly, $1.00 a year.

NATIONAL CONGRESS OF PARENTS AND TEACHERS—Mrs. A. H. Reeve, President. Mrs. A. C. Watkins, Executive Secretary, 1201 Sixteenth Street, N. W., Washington, D. C. To develop cooperation between home and school, and an informed public opinion which will secure highest advantages for all children.

NATIONAL SOCIETY FOR THE PREVENTION OF BLINDNESS—Lewis H. Carris, Managing Director; Mrs. Winifred Hathaway, Associate Director; B. Franklin Rover, M.D., Medical Director; Eleanor P. Brown, Secretary, 370 Seventh Avenue, New York. Studies scientific advances in medical and pedagogical knowledge and disseminates practical information as to ways of preventing blindness and conserving sight. Literature, exhibits, lantern slides, lectures, charts and co-operation in sight-saving projects available on request.

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NATIONAL CONFERENCE OF SOCIAL WORK—Sherman C. Kingsley, president, Chicago, Ill.; Howard R. Knight, sec'y, 277 E. Long St., Columbus, Ohio. The conference is an organization to discuss the principles of humanitarian effort and to increase the efficiency of social service agencies. Each year it holds an annual meeting, publishes in permanent form the Proceedings of the meeting, and issues a quarterly Bulletin. The fifty-fourth annual meeting of the Conference will be held in Memphis, Tenn., May 2nd-9th, 1928. Proceedings are sent free of charge to all members upon payment of a membership fee of five dollars.

NATIONAL COUNCIL OF JEWISH WOMEN—Mrs. Joseph E. Friend, President; Mrs. Estelle M. Sternberger, Executive Secretary, 2109 Broadway, New York City. Program covers twelve departments in religious, educational, civic and legislative work, peace and social service. Official publication: "The Jewish Woman."

Department of Immigrant Aid and Immigrant Education, 799 Broadway, New York City. For the protection and education of immigrant women and girls. Maintains Bureau of International Service. Monthly bulletin, "The Immigrant." Florina Lasker, Chairman; Cecilia Razovsky, Secretary.

Department of Farm and Rural Work, Mrs. Elmer Eckhouse, Chairman, 5 Columbus Circle, New York City. Program of Education, recreation, religious intsruction and social service work for rural communities. Bulletin: "The Rural Voice."

NATIONAL TUBERCULOSIS ASSOCIATION—370 Seventh Ave., New York. Dr. Theobald Smith, president; Dr. Linsly R. Williams, managing director. Pamphlets on methods and program for the prevention of tuberculosis. Publications sold and distributed through state associations in every state. Journal of the Outdoor Life, popular monthly magazine, $2.00 a year; American Review of Tuberculosis, medical journal, $8.00 a year; and Monthly Bulletin, house organ, free.

NATIONAL HEALTH CIRCLE FOR COLORED PEOPLE, Inc.—370 Seventh Avenue, New York City. Col. Theodore Roosevelt, Honorary President; Dr. Jesse E. Mooreland, Pres.; Dr. George C. Booth, Treasurer; Miss Belle Davis, Executive Secretary.

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To create and stimulate health consciousness and responsibility among the colored people in their own health problems.
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NATIONAL COUNCIL OF WOMEN—370 Seventh Ave., N. Y. C. Clearing house for 35 women's organizations. Valeria H. Parker, M.D., President.

NATIONAL URBAN LEAGUE—For social service among Negroes. L. Hollingsworth Wood, pres.; Eugene Kinckle Jones, exec. sec'y; 17 Madison Ave., New York. Establishes committees of white and colored people to work out community problems. Trains Negro social workers. Publishes "Opportunity"—a "journal of Negro life."

PLAYGROUND AND RECREATION ASSOCIATION OF AMERICA—315 Fourth Ave., New York City. Joseph Lee, president; H. S. Braucher, secretary. To bring to every boy and girl and citizen of America an adequate opportunity for wholesome, happy play and recreation. Playgrounds, community centers, swimming pools, athletics, music, drama, camping, home play, are all means to this end.

RUSSELL SAGE FOUNDATION—For the Improvement of Living Conditions—John M. Glenn, dir.; 130 E. 22nd St., New York. Departments: Charity Organization. Delinquency and Penology, Industrial Studies, Library, Recreation, Remedial Loans, Statistics, Surveys and Exhibits. The publications of the Russell Sage Foundation offer to the public in practical and inexpensive form some of the most important results of its work. Catalogue sent upon request.

TUSKEGEE INSTITUTE—An institution for the training of Negro Youth; an experiment in race adjustment in the Black Belt of the South; furnishes information on all phases of the race problem and of the Tuskegee idea and methods; Robert R. Moton, principal; W. H. Carter, treasurer; A. L. Holsey, secretary, Tuskegee Institute, Ala.

WORKERS' EDUCATION BUREAU OF AMERICA—a cooperative Educational Agency for the promotion of Adult Education among Industrial Workers. 476 West 24th Street, New York City. Spencer Miller, Jr., Secretary.

(*Continued from page* 660)

School for Social Work. The course is open to graduate students and to undergraduate students, especially qualified.

MARY CAPLAN, director of the Jewish Center of Detroit, secretary of the Jewish Centers association and of the Jewish Open Forum, was given a testimonial dinner recently, upon completion of her seventh year of social work in Detroit.

JOHN J. HADER, last associated with E. C. Lindeman in a study of adult-educational curricula, and Helen T. Mayers, psychiatric social worker at a New York hospital, have joined the staff of The Inquiry. Mr. Hader is conducting a study of company unions, and Miss Mayers is continuing the study of Community Conflict commenced by Raymond S. Fuller. Both projects are expected to produce material for experiments with democratic methods of group study and adult education on a nation-wide scale.

EDWARD W. MACY, formerly publicity secretary of the National Child Welfare Committee, and now on the staff of Hedrick, Marts, and Lundy, is editor of The Voice of New York, the monthly publication of the New York Board of Trade and Transportation.

IN THE EMERGENCY caused by the continued illness and leave of absence of Professor J. A. Dale, Edward J. Urwick, formerly Tooke professor of economic science in King's College, London, head of the Department of Social Science, and administrator of the University of London, has been appointed head of the Department of Social Science, University of Toronto.

Elections and Appointments

CELENA BAXTER, formerly with Mothers' Pension Department, Washington, Pa., now with Cleveland Associated Charities.

LOTTIE BIALOSKY, formerly supervisor Cleveland Humane Society, now supervisor of casework, Juvenile Court, Cuyahoga County, (Cleveland.)

RAY BLIGHT, formerly with Associated Charities, Johnstown, Pa., now with Cleveland Association for Crippled and Disabled.

FLORENCE B. BREED, formerly with Indiana Tuberculosis Association, now secretary Duval County Tuberculosis Association, Jacksonville.

RUTH A. BROWN, formerly supervisor of children's work, State Dept. of Welfare of Georgia, will become secretary Social Service Exchange, Dayton, O.

HARRY BRUCE WILSON, Superintendent of Schools, Berkeley, Calif., now National Director of American Junior Red Cross, succeeding late Arthur William Dunn.

OLIVE C. CADBURY, formerly assistant director, St. Louis Community Council, now secretary Indianapolis Council of Social Agencies, succeeding Malvina Bloom, resigned.

LUCY J. CHAMBERLAIN, formerly assistant in research, Community Organization Department, New York School of Social Work, now editorial assistant, Milbank Memorial Fund.

HELEN CLARK, formerly with U. S. Veterans' Hospital, Muskogee, now executive secretary, A.R.C., Parsons, Kansas.

FLOY EVANS, now office secretary, Indiana Tuberculosis Association, succeeding Mrs. Florence B. Breed.

H. GRACE FRANKLIN, formerly with State Dept. Public Welfare, Arizona, now social service director, Jewish Hospital of St. Louis.

ALMA HAUPT, now with New York Office, American Nurses Association, in charge of Nursing and Public Health Service, Division of Rural Hospitals.

GLENNA HENDERSON, now itinerant nutritionist, Dayton, O., Chapter A.R.C.

EDWARD G. HENSLEY, now field representative, A.R.C., for the eastern area.

JOHN W. HERRING, now educational director, National Community Foundation.

GLEN HOOVER, now head of Social Service Department, City Hospital, Indianapolis.

BERTHA HOWELL, assistant director St. Louis Community Council, elected Chairman, St. Louis Chapter, A.A.S.W.

WILLIAM CARL HUNT, formerly assistant to the vice-chairman, in charge of Pacific Branch Office, now Assistant Manager of Eastern Area, A.R.C.

MYRTLE G. INCE, now director Red Cross Service, U. S. Naval Hospital, Washington, succeeding Helen S. Ellis.

PETER KASIUS, formerly with American Association for Medical Progress, now executive secretary, Missouri Social Hygiene Association, succeeding Charles E. Miner.

MARY W. KEEFER, formerly hospital social worker, U. S. Veterans' Hospital, Whipple, Arizona, now hospital social worker U. S. Naval Hospital, Mare Island, Calif.

CLARA KUMMER, formerly director City Welfare Dept., West Palm Beach, now in charge Pixley Home and Relief, Fort Wayne.

DOROTHY LEDYARD, formerly asst. director A.R.C. Public Health Nursing Service, Pacific Branch, awarded Peter Henrik Ling Foundation Medal for her work for children of California.

MIRIAM LINCOLN, formerly with Wilder Dispensary, St. Paul, now head worker for skin diseases, St. Louis Hospital Social Service.

CHRISTINA LOHRMANN, MRS. ROBERT MASTERS, JESSIE ADAMS, and MRS. CHESTERMAN (volunteer) now members of staff of Indianapolis Family Welfare Society.

MARGUERITE MARSH, formerly secretary Kentucky Consumers' League, now Research Secretary, National Consumers' League, working at children's compensation for industrial injuries.

E. C. MARSHALL, formerly assistant superintendent Kansas Children's Home and Service League, now superintendent Oklahoma Children's Home Society.

GLENNA MOCHEE, now with Cleveland Babies' Dispensary, as specialist in breast therapy.

FRANCES MCCLAUGHY, formerly psychiatric social worker Letterman Hospital, San. Francisco,

(*Continued on page* 669)

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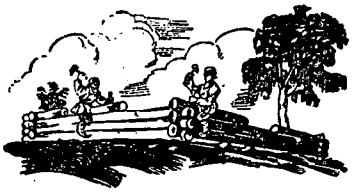

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WILLIAMS

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DELUSION AND DREAM, by SIGMUND FREUD. With an introduction by G. STANLEY HALL.

TOTEM and TABOO, by SIGMUND FREUD. Authorized translation by DR. A. A. BRILL.

LAISSEZ-FAIRE AND COMMUNISM, by JOHN MAYNARD KEYNES.

THE MEANING OF ADULT EDUCATION, by E. C. LINDEMAN, 2nd edition.

YOUTH IN CONFLICT, by MIRIAM VAN WATERS. 5th edition. Also in boards. $1.50.

CONCERNING PARENTS—a symposium on Present Day Parenthood. 4th edition. Also in boards. $1.50.

OUR ENEMY THE CHILD, by AGNES DE LIMA. 3rd edition. Also in boards. $1.50.

THE AMERICAN COLLEGE AND ITS RULERS, by J. E. KIRKPATRICK, Ph.D. 2nd edition.

HOMES OF THE FREED, by ROSSA B. COOLEY.

THE CHILD, THE CLINIC AND THE COURT, a symposium on Juvenile Delinquency, with introduction by JANE ADDAMS. 2nd edition.

ENCAUSTICS, by STARK YOUNG.

SOCIAL DISCOVERY, by E. C. LINDEMAN, 2nd edition. Also in cloth. $1.50.

MOTHERS IN INDUSTRY, by GWENDOLYN S. HUGHES. Also in cloth. $1.50

THE SUPREME COURT AND MINIMUM WAGE LEGISLATION—a symposium with an introduction by DEAN ROSCOE POUND.

EDUCATION, THE MACHINE AND THE WORKER, by HORACE M. KALLEN, Ph.D.

THE STORY OF TEAPOT DOME, by M. E. RAVAGE.

THE LABOR SPY, by SIDNEY HOWARD, with the collaboration of ROBERT DUNN.

THE YOUTH MOVEMENT IN CHINA, by TSI C. WANG, Ph.D.

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by MIRIAM VAN WATERS

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THE author of *Youth in Conflict* has written a second book—the awaited corollary to her first.

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